

YOU

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Editorial Staff and Bureau Directory

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

LEADER DIVISION (See also above)

A. T. Murphy, Administrator

HEWETT J. FERGUSON, Chief, Strategic
Management Branch

Editorial and Research (vacancy)

WALTER G. KRAM, Director of Field
Operations

HENRY B. KILLOUGH, Acting Chief,
Employment and Occupations/Out-
look Branch

JOHN H. G. PRIMROSE, Commissioner of War Adjustment
PAUL M. WILLIAMS, Commissioner of Cost of Living Standards

JOHN C. TOWNS, Chief, Marketing
Statistics, Consumer Price Indexes and Industrial Production

JOHN W. WIGGINS, Chief, Prices
of Living Branch

W. WILCOX, Chief, Employment

Construction and Public Employment
Herman B. Byer

Consumer's Prices, Eustis D. Hoover

Cost of Living, Dorothy R. Brady

Employment Statistics, Abramson
Sturges (acting chief)

General Price Research (vacancy)

Industrial Manpower, Max D. Hansen

Industrial Prices, Jean M. Cutts

International Relations, Florence Moore
and staff chief, William L. Smith

Statistical Industrial Relations Branch

Other Information Service, Boris Stein

Productivity, Joseph Drucker

Occupational Outlook, Charles Schram

Productivity and Technological De-

velopment, W. Daniel Evans

Wage Analysis, Robert J. Myrdal

Copies of Bureau of Labor Statistics publications and further information may be obtained from the several Subdivisions, some of which appear on the back cover of this issue. The members of the Bureau's National Directors and their technical staffs are available to answer questions from government and the general public for consultation and information. The Bureau, however, does not, for example, employment, price, wage, other economic statistics; moreover, the Bureau does not accept responsibility for any errors or omissions.

The Monthly LABOR REVIEW, 12 issues, is published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price, \$1.00 per copy. Subscription price per year in the United States, \$12.00; elsewhere, \$14.00.

*General
Rep. by the U. S. Govt.*

STATISTICS

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

CONTENTS

JANUARY 1945, Vol. 60, No. 1

Special articles:

	Page
War and post-war trends in employment of Negroes.....	1
Teen-age youth in the wartime labor force.....	6
Labor conditions in China.....	18

Wartime policies:

"Basic Steel" decision of National War Labor Board.....	41
Interim reallocation of British civilian manpower.....	43
Temporary lay-offs to conserve fuel in New South Wales.....	45
12-year minimum age for labor conscription in Japan.....	46

Social security:

Dismissal-pay provisions in union agreements, December 1944.....	47
Prepayment medical care in the United States.....	57

Discharged soldiers:

Guaranty of home loans for veterans.....	63
Veterans' rehabilitation in New Zealand.....	64

Post-war reconstruction:

Reconstruction policies in New Zealand.....	70
Government encouragement of post-war industrial expansion in Federal District, Mexico.....	73

Employment conditions:

War and post-war trends in employment of Negroes.....	1
Teen-age youth in the wartime labor force.....	6
Labor conditions in China.....	18
Distribution of manpower in Great Britain, 1939-44.....	74
Industrial distribution of population in Guatemala, 1940.....	75
Employment and wages in Peru, 1940-42.....	76

Paid vacations:

Vacations with pay in selected industries, 1943-44.....	80
Law for compulsory paid vacations in Iceland.....	95

Industrial injuries:

Industrial injuries, August 1944.....	96
---------------------------------------	----

Labor organizations:

Convention of iron workers (A. F. of L.), 1944.....	99
Convention of marine and shipbuilding workers (C. I. O.), 1944.....	102
Convention of Canadian Congress of Labor.....	107
Convention of Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, 1944.....	108
Labor union membership in Chile, 1943.....	110
Session of British Trades Union Congress, 1944.....	112

	Page
<i>Industrial relations:</i>	
Dismissal-pay provisions in union agreements, December 1944-----	47
<i>Industrial disputes:</i>	
Strikes in November 1944-----	115
Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, October 1944-----	117
<i>Labor laws and decisions:</i>	
Federal labor legislation in 1944-----	119
Recent decisions of interest to labor-----	121
Recent labor legislation in Saskatchewan-----	129
<i>Wage and hour statistics:</i>	
Wage rates in the manufacture of molded plastic products in Chicago, July 1944-----	132
Wage rates in fruit and vegetable canneries, summer of 1943-----	134
Union wages and hours in the building trades, July 1, 1944-----	140
Trend of factory earnings, 1939 to October 1944-----	158
Michigan—Earnings of men and women in factories, August 1944-----	159
<i>Wage and hour regulation:</i>	
Puerto Rico—Wage orders under Fair Labor Standards Act-----	162
Cuba—General wage increase-----	163
Mexico—Minimum-wage rates, 1944 and 1945-----	164
Peru—Minimum salaries for commercial employees in Lima and Callao-----	167
<i>Cost of living and retail prices:</i>	
Report of President's Committee on Cost of Living-----	168
Cost of living in large cities, November 1944-----	174
Retail prices of food in October 1944-----	177
<i>Wholesale prices:</i>	
Wholesale prices in November 1944-----	183
<i>Labor turnover:</i>	
Labor turnover in manufacturing, mining, and public utilities, October 1944-----	188
<i>Building operations:</i>	
Building construction in urban areas, November 1944-----	192
<i>Trend of employment, earnings, and hours:</i>	
Summary of reports for November 1944-----	196
Industrial and business employment-----	196
Public employment-----	197
Construction employment-----	199
Detailed reports for industrial and business employment, October 1944: Estimates of nonagricultural employment-----	200
Industrial and business employment-----	201
Indexes of employment and pay rolls-----	203
Average earnings and hours-----	210
Civilian labor force, November 1944-----	214
<i>Labor conditions in Latin America</i> -----	73, 75, 76, 110, 162, 163, 164, 167
<i>Recent publications of labor interest</i> -----	216

This Issue in Brief

Page
47115
117

119

121
129132
134

140

158

159

162
163
164

167

168

174
177

183

188

192

196

196

197

199

200

201

203

210

214

167

216

War and post-war trends in employment of Negroes.

More than 5½ million Negroes were in the civilian labor force in April 1944. In the 4-year period ending with that month the proportion employed on farms decreased and the proportion working in factories (especially those connected with production of munitions of war) increased markedly. As the gains in employment made by Negroes have been in those industries, occupations, and localities most likely to experience sharp post-war curtailment, their retention of these gains after the war will depend largely upon the maintenance of a generally high level of employment. Page 1.

Teen-age youth in the wartime labor force.

Teen-age boys and girls have been the largest single source of additional wartime labor supply. There are about 5 million teen-agers in the civilian labor force and 1½ million in the armed forces. This total of 6½ millions exceeds normal peacetime expectations by almost 3 millions. There are 1½ million young persons attending school and working part time (on an average, 20 hours per week), largely in retail trade. Those not attending school are employed a full work-week (average 46 hours), mostly in manufacturing and agriculture. Wartime gains in teen-age employment are largely temporary, running counter to a strong long-term trend toward longer school attendance and less labor-market participation for young persons in the United States. Page 6.

Labor conditions in China.

As China is an almost entirely agricultural country, before the war only about 4½ millions of the 450 million people were industrial workers and few of these were skilled. The factories were largely foreign-owned and were concentrated along the seacoast. The Japanese invasion, engulfing practically all the sources of manufactured goods, made necessary the removal to the interior of the country such industrial facilities as could be saved and the creation of new industries there. Low wages, unemployment, poor housing, and the extreme monetary inflation resulting in higher prices and in further depressing an already low standard of living are some of the difficulties which China has had to face. Page 18.

Reconstruction and veterans' rehabilitation in New Zealand.

In October 1941 the New Zealand Government passed the Rehabilitation Act, a measure which resulted in the establishment of a Rehabilitation Board and, subsequently, a Department of Rehabilitation. Benefits provided for discharged servicemen include certain discharge allowances, reinstatement rights, a broad training and education program, and Government assistance in establishing businesses. General reconstruction policy is the subject of considerable controversy, with emphasis placed on the questions of the extent of post-war State control and the amount of industrialization to be retained after the close of hostilities. The Government established the Organization for National Development in mid-1944 to coordinate plans for New Zealand's post-war economy. Pages 64 and 70.

Dismissal-pay provisions in union agreements.

Most of the dismissal-pay provisions now contained in union contracts have been negotiated by the American Newspaper Guild, International Typographical Union, and United Office and Professional Workers, although some important companies having agreements with other unions have contracted to pay dismissal compensation. Although some agreements allow severance pay for all separations, others limit payment to dismissals resulting from reorganization, techno-

logical displacement, or other economic causes beyond the control of the worker. The amount of dismissal pay is almost invariably based on an employee's length of service and his rate of pay. A detailed discussion of dismissal-pay provisions in 450 union agreements is found on page 47.

Prepayment medical care in the United States.

Over 3.3 million persons (1.8 million subscribers and 1.5 million of their dependents) were entitled in 1943 to medical service under 214 prepayment plans for which data were obtained by the Federal Social Security Board. Including eligibles under other plans not covered in the study, the Board concluded that probably less than 5 percent of the entire noninstitutional population of the United States is protected in this way against the cost of illness. Of the 214 plans studied, 29 were sponsored and controlled by consumers (i. e., cooperative); also, in 47 of the plans operating among employees of industry the entire cost was borne by the employees, and these plans also could therefore be regarded as consumer-sponsored. Page 57.

Distribution of manpower in Great Britain, 1939-44.

Men aged 14 to 64 years and women aged 14 to 59 in the British armed forces, civil-defense work, and industrial employment totaled 22 million in June 1944—a gain of 3½ million over June 1939. A recent White Paper issued by the Government of Great Britain states that the increase was achieved by reducing the number of unemployed by 1¼ million and by a net addition to the labor force of 2½ million persons who were not previously employed. The wartime allocation between the armed forces, war industries, and civilian production is also shown for the first time. Page 74.

Vacations with pay in selected industries, 1943-44.

Over 3 million plant workers and over 430,000 office workers were found to be covered by paid-vacation plans in 1943-44, in a study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In the more than 15,000 establishments included in the study, 85 percent of the plant workers and 97 percent of the office workers received vacations with pay. Plant workers most commonly received 1 week's vacation, but for 60 percent of these workers this period could be increased, usually after longer periods of service. Office workers generally received more liberal vacations than did plant workers, 2 weeks being the most common maximum, after specified periods of service. Page 80.

Wage rates in the molded plastic industry, 1944.

Straight-time hourly earnings among the male workers employed in key jobs in the manufacture of molded plastic products in the summer of 1944 in the Chicago area ranged from 65 cents for hand truckers to \$1.51 for class A tool and die makers. Among the women employed, the range was from 65 cents for finishers to 91 cents for compression molders. Page 132.

Union wages and hours in the building trades, July 1, 1944.

The average union wage rate for organized workers in the building trades in 75 cities was \$1.48 per hour on July 1, 1944. The average for journeymen was \$1.59 and for helpers and laborers, 93.9 cents. This was an increase of only 0.8 percent for both the journeymen and the combined trades, as compared with 1943; for helpers and laborers the increase amounted to 1.2 percent. Straight-time weekly hours for journeymen averaged 39.8, and for helpers and laborers, 40.0 hours. Page 140.

CURRENT LABOR STATISTICS

V

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods¹

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit	1944			1943: November	1939: Average for year
		November	October	September		
<i>Employment</i>						
Civilian labor force: Total (BC)	Thousands	52,210	52,870	53,030	52,550	\$ 54,230
Male	Thousands	34,060	34,410	34,590	35,080	\$ 40,950
Female	Thousands	18,150	18,460	18,440	17,470	\$ 13,280
Employed	Thousands	51,530	52,240	52,250	51,680	\$ 46,930
Male	Thousands	33,710	34,100	34,190	34,640	\$ 35,600
Female	Thousands	17,820	18,140	18,060	17,040	\$ 11,330
Nonagricultural	Thousands	43,390	43,490	43,580	43,980	\$ 37,430
Agricultural	Thousands	8,140	8,750	8,670	7,700	\$ 9,500
Unemployed, total	Thousands	680	630	780	870	\$ 7,300
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total ²	Thousands	38,400	38,414	38,523	39,847	30,353
Manufacturing	Thousands	15,599	15,699	15,839	17,238	10,078
Mining	Thousands	810	816	826	863	845
Construction	Thousands	635	659	671	918	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	Thousands	3,765	3,766	3,793	3,683	2,912
Trade	Thousands	7,289	7,146	6,996	7,245	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	Thousands	4,429	4,396	4,452	4,078	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	Thousands	5,885	5,932	5,946	5,822	3,988
Military personnel	Thousands		11,870	11,815	\$ 9,978	362
<i>Hours of labor</i>						
Average hours per week of wage earners:						
Manufacturing	Hours		45.6	44.9	\$ 45.4	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	Hours		44.1	42.0	\$ 38.8	27.1
Retail trade	Hours		41.6	41.8	\$ 39.9	43.0
Building construction (private)	Hours		39.5	40.7	39.2	32.4
<i>Weekly earnings</i>						
Average weekly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			\$46.98	\$46.25	\$44.86	\$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			\$52.33	\$50.95	\$45.08	\$23.88
Retail trade			\$26.94	\$27.09	\$24.93	\$21.17
Building construction (private)			\$52.71	\$54.66	\$53.71	\$30.24
<i>Hourly or daily earnings</i>						
Average hourly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			\$1.031	\$1.031	\$0.988	\$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			\$1.191	\$1.213	\$1.165	\$0.886
Retail trade			\$0.714	\$0.712	\$0.688	\$0.536
Building construction (private)			\$1.335	\$1.343	\$1.292	\$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			\$0.956	\$0.961	\$0.916	\$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1939			\$0.882	\$0.886	\$0.836	\$0.622
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)			\$4.06		\$3.51	\$1.57
<i>Industrial injuries, labor turnover, and absences from work</i>						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing, per million man-hours worked.				7 19.4	7 20.7	15.4
Labor turnover in manufacturing:						
Total separations, per 100 employees			6.4	7.6	\$ 7.0	(*)
Quits, per 100 employees			5.0	6.1	\$ 5.2	(*)
Lay-offs, per 100 employees			0.5	0.6	\$ 0.5	(*)
Total accessions, per 100 employees			6.0	6.1	\$ 7.2	(*)
Absence rates (workdays lost as percent of total scheduled):						
Manufacturing, selected industries			6.3	6.2	6.0	(*)
Bituminous-coal mining			12.3	12.4	12.1	9.4

See footnotes at end of table.

CURRENT LABOR STATISTICS

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods¹—Continued

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit	1944			1943: Novem- ber	1939: Average for year
		Novem- ber	October	Septem- ber		
<i>Strikes</i>						
Strikes beginning in month:						
Number of strikes	375	440	390	325		218
Number of workers involved	Thousands 200	220	185	136		98
Man-days idle during month (all strikes):						
Number	Thousands 710	690	660	2,863		1,484
Percent of available working time	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.38		0.28
<i>Cost of living</i>						
Cost-of-living index (wage earners in large cities):						
All items ²	1935-39=100 126.5	126.4	126.5	124.2		99.4
Food	136.5	136.4	137.0	137.3		95.2
Clothing	141.8	141.7	141.4	133.5		100.5
Rent	108.2	108.2	108.0	104.3		
Fuel, electricity, and ice	109.9	109.8	109.8	107.9		99.0
Housefurnishings	141.4	141.3	140.7	126.9		101.3
Miscellaneous	122.7	122.7	122.4	117.7		100.7
<i>Retail food prices (large cities)</i>						
Retail price index: All foods	1935-39=100 136.5	136.4	137.0	137.3		95.2
Cereals and bakery products	108.6	108.6	108.6	108.3		94.5
Meats	129.7	129.4	129.0	130.4		96.6
Dairy products	133.6	133.6	133.6	133.6		95.9
Eggs	186.8	179.0	168.0	190.8		91.0
Fruits and vegetables	160.7	162.9	169.9	162.6		94.5
Beverages	124.3	124.3	124.3	124.8		95.5
Fats and oils	123.2	123.1	123.0	125.0		87.7
Sugar and sweets	126.5	126.4	126.3	126.6		100.6
<i>Wholesale prices</i>						
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100 104.4	104.1	104.0	102.9		77.1
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100 99.9	99.8	99.7	98.8		79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100 98.8	98.7	98.6	97.4		81.3
Farm products	1926=100 124.4	123.4	122.7	121.4		65.3
Foods	1926=100 105.1	104.2	104.2	105.8		70.4
<i>National income and expenditures</i>						
National income payments, total (BFDC)	Millions \$13,660	\$13,684	\$12,600	\$ 6,327		
Consumer expenditures for goods and services, total (BFDC)	Millions \$8,447	\$8,298	\$8,038	\$ 5,384		
Retail sales, total (BFDC)	Millions \$6,052	\$5,895	\$5,789	\$ 3,748		
<i>Production</i>						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR):						
Total	1935-39=100 233	234	234	247		109
Manufacturing	249	250	249	268		109
Minerals	144	145	147	132		106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons 50,215	51,500	50,600	44,643		32,905
Construction expenditures, all types (excluding maintenance, except in farm construction). ¹⁰	Millions \$350	\$393	\$407	\$482		\$ 575
Building construction started in urban areas	Millions \$375	\$400	\$412	\$111		(0)
New family-dwelling units in nonfarm areas	11,600	11,200	10,400	25,800		\$ 45,100
Carloadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935-39=100 144	148	150	142		101

¹ Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics unless otherwise indicated. Abbreviations used: BC (Bureau of the Census); ICC (Interstate Commerce Commission); BAE (Bureau of Agricultural Economics); BFDC (Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce); FR (Federal Reserve); BM (Bureau of Mines). Most of the current figures are preliminary.

² 10-month average—March to December 1940.

³ Differs from employed nonagricultural workers in civilian labor force above, mainly because of exclusion of such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

⁴ Includes workers employed by construction contractors and Federal force-account workers (nonmaintenance construction workers employed directly by the Federal Government). Other force-account non-maintenance construction employment is included under manufacturing and the other groups.

⁵ November.

⁶ October.

⁷ Cumulative frequency rate January to September.

⁸ Not available.

⁹ For the coverage of this index, see p. 174.

¹⁰ Data for 1943 and 1944 revised because of new BAE farm construction data.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

JANUARY 1945

1939:
Average
for year

218
98

War and Post-War Trends in Employment of Negroes¹

1,484
0.28

Summary

THE 700,000 Negroes in the Army have their civilian counterpart in the more than 5½ million Negro workers in the United States. This civilian labor force has experienced marked changes in both its occupational and industrial attributes, which are significant as indicators not only of wartime change but also of post-war employment opportunities.

Employment of Negroes in civilian jobs increased by almost a million between April 1940 and April 1944, the number of employed men rising from 2.9 to 3.2 million and the number of employed women from 1.5 to 2.1 million. The outstanding changes in Negro employment that occurred during the 4-year period were a marked movement from the farms to the factories (particularly to those making munitions of war), a substantial amount of upgrading for Negro workers, but little change in the proportions occupied in unskilled jobs. As the Negroes' greatest employment advances have been made in precisely those occupations, industries, and areas in which the post-war adjustment will be most severe, the extent to which these gains can be retained will be largely dependent upon the maintenance of a high level of post-war employment.

The facts shown in the present article are based upon an analysis of data on the occupational and industrial distribution of employed Negroes for April 1940 (shown by the 16th Decennial Census), as compared with April 1944 (shown by the Monthly Report on the Labor Force of the Bureau of the Census²).

Changes in Occupational Distribution, 1940 to 1944

The proportion of the employed male Negro labor force on farms declined from 47 percent in April 1940 to 28 percent in April 1944, or by 13 points; the proportion in industry increased by the same amount. The remainder of the major occupational groups showed changes of not more than about 1 point between 1940 and 1944 (table 1).

¹ Prepared by Seymour L. Wolfbein, of the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division (on military leave).

² The sample upon which the Monthly Report on the Labor Force operates is designed to provide national totals on employment, unemployment, and the labor force. It should be noted therefore, that the data on the occupational and industrial distribution of the employed nonwhite population presented in the following tables are based on a sample of a comparatively small number of persons and are subject to a larger sampling error than the national totals, and for this reason absolute numbers are not given in the present article. The broad composition of the group, however, is clearly shown.

The shift from the farm to the factory, therefore, is by far the most outstanding change that took place in the male Negro labor force during the war. Between 1940 and 1944, the number of Negroes employed as skilled craftsmen and foremen doubled, as did the number engaged as "operatives," i. e. performing the basic semiskilled factory operations. Altogether, the number in both categories rose from about 500,000 to a total of about 1,000,000 during the 4 years covering the National Defense Program and the entry of the United States into the war. In contrast the number on farms, either as farm operators or laborers, decreased by about 300,000. In terms of the total numbers involved the other changes were small.

The number of Negro men working as proprietors, managers, and officials increased 50 percent in the 4-year period, but in April 1944 still had not reached 75,000.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Employed Negroes by Occupation and Sex, April 1940 and April 1944*¹

Occupation	Negro males			Negro females		
	April 1940	April 1944	Change, 1940-44	April 1940	April 1944	Change, 1940-44
Farm workers	41.2	28.0	-13.2	16.0	8.1	-7.9
Farmers, farm managers	21.3	14.3	-7.0	3.0	2.9	-1
Farm laborers	19.9	13.7	-6.2	13.0	5.2	-7.8
Industrial workers	17.0	29.7	+12.7	6.5	18.0	+11.5
Craftsmen, foremen	4.4	7.3	+2.9	.2	.7	+5
Operatives	12.6	22.4	+9.8	6.3	17.3	+11.0
Laborers	21.4	20.3	-1.1	.8	2.0	+1.2
Service workers	15.3	15.1	-.2	70.3	62.5	-7.8
Domestic service	2.9	1.6	-1.3	59.9	44.6	-15.3
Protective service	.5	.3	-.2	(2)	(2)	—
Personal and other services	11.9	13.2	+1.3	10.4	17.9	+7.5
Clerical and sales people	2.0	3.0	+1.0	1.4	3.9	+2.5
Clerical	1.2	2.4	+1.2	.9	3.2	+2.3
Sales	.8	.6	-.2	.5	.7	+2
Proprietors, managers and professional workers	3.1	3.9	+.8	5.0	5.5	+5
Professional, semiprofessional	1.8	1.7	-.1	4.3	4.0	-.3
Proprietors, managers, officials	1.3	2.2	+.9	.7	1.5	+8
Total employed Negroes	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	—

¹ Data for April 1940 are from 16th Census of US, Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force, Part 1, U. S. Summary, table 62 (pp. 88 et seq.). Data for April 1944 are from Bureau of the Census, Monthly Report on the Labor Force. All data exclude persons whose occupation was not ascertainable. April 1944 percentages are for all nonwhites but do not result in any significant difference from the distribution for Negroes only.

² Less than 0.05 percent.

Slightly over 7 of every 10 employed Negro women were in some service activity in April 1940, and the great majority of these were domestic servants. After 4 years, the proportion in the services had decreased only slightly, although a significant internal shift had occurred. The proportion working as domestic servants showed a marked decrease, while those engaged in the personal services, e. g. as beauticians, cooks, waitresses, etc., showed a corresponding increase. It is interesting to note, in this connection, that the actual number of Negro domestics showed a slight increase between 1940 and 1944 (about 50,000), but it was not enough to counterbalance the decline of 400,000 among white domestic servants.

As among the men, the most pronounced occupational shift among Negro women was the shift from the farm to the factory. In April 1940, 16 percent of the entire female Negro labor force was on farms; 4 years later, that proportion had been halved. The total number of

Negro women employed had increased by about a third; the number employed on farms had decreased by about 30 percent. On the other hand, Negro women employed as craftsmen and foremen and as factory operatives almost quadrupled during the same period.

No significant changes occurred in any of the other major occupational groups. Percentage increases were large; the number of Negro women working as proprietors, managers, or officials tripled, those working as saleswomen almost doubled, and those engaged as clerical workers rose to a number five times as great as in April 1940. The actual numbers involved were very small, however, and made little difference in the occupational distribution of the employed Negro women.

Negroes' Position in Total Labor Force, 1940 and 1944

It is evident from the foregoing that Negro workers have experienced a considerable amount of upgrading; by April 1944 both men and women were engaged in skilled and semiskilled factory operations which few had performed before the war. Nevertheless, a considerable proportion of the Negro labor force was still engaged in unskilled occupations and service activities. Thus, 1 in every 5 Negro men was working as an unskilled laborer in April 1940; after 4 years, the proportion engaged in that activity remained the same (table 1). The same situation was found in practically every other major occupational group.

The employment distribution of Negro women followed the same pattern. Despite their large increases, already noted, in clerical positions and as saleswomen, the total in these occupational groups numbered less than 100,000 in April 1944, as compared with a total of more than 5½ million white women in the same occupations in that month. Furthermore, comparatively little gain was made by the Negro women in such other fields as professional and semiprofessional endeavors and in the proprietary and managerial groups.

Table 2 shows the proportion of Negroes in each occupational group, by sex, in April 1940 and April 1944.

TABLE 2.—*Incidence of Negroes among Total Employed Workers in Specified Occupational Groups, April 1940 and April 1944*¹

Occupational group	Negro males as percent of total males in occupation		Negro females as percent of total females in occupation	
	April 1940	April 1944	April 1940	April 1944
All employed persons.....	8.6	9.8	13.8	12.9
Professional, semiprofessional workers.....	2.8	3.3	4.5	5.7
Proprietors, managers, officials.....	1.1	2.1	2.6	4.8
Clerical workers.....	1.6	3.5	0.7	1.6
Salespeople.....	1.1	1.5	1.2	1.1
Craftsmen, foremen.....	2.6	3.6	2.2	5.2
Operatives.....	5.9	10.1	4.7	8.3
Domestic service workers.....	60.2	75.2	46.6	60.9
Protective service workers.....	2.4	1.7	3.8	—
Personal and other service workers.....	22.8	31.4	12.7	24.0
Farmers, farm managers.....	12.4	11.0	30.4	23.8
Farm laborers.....	21.0	21.1	62.0	21.4
Laborers (excluding farm).....	21.0	27.6	13.2	35.6

¹ See table 1 for source of data.

As table 2 indicates, after 4 years of wartime change, over 98 percent of the clerical and sales force in the country is still white, while about 95 percent of the professional, proprietary, and managerial group also remain white. On the other hand, the proportion of the unskilled jobs filled by Negroes is larger than it was. For example, the total number of male laborers (outside of agriculture) decreased but there was a slight increase in the number of Negroes in such jobs. The same sort of development occurred among female domestic servants. The greatest gain in employment opportunity has come from the opening up of jobs to Negroes as semiskilled and skilled workers, principally in factories.

Changes in Industrial Distribution, 1940 to 1944

The changes in the industrial distribution of the employed Negroes between April 1940 and April 1944, given in table 3, reveal again the shift from the farm to the factory, showing a marked decline in the proportion engaged in agriculture and a corresponding increase in the proportion in manufacturing. The gains in factory employment, however, have occurred in the munitions industries. Thus, the most important fact disclosed by table 3 is the concentration of the increase of Negro factory workers in the "metals, chemicals, and rubber" group—the so-called war-industry category which includes the basic heavy industries such as iron and steel and machinery, as well as transportation equipment (including aircraft and shipbuilding). The actual number of Negro men in this group increased by well over a quarter of a million between 1940 and 1944, tripling in 4 years.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Employed Negroes, by Industry and Sex, April 1940 and April 1944*¹

Industry	Negro males			Negro females		
	April 1940	April 1944	Change, 1940-44	April 1940	April 1944	Change, 1940-44
Agriculture	42.0	29.9	-12.1	16.1	8.1	-8.0
Forestry and fishing	.8	.5	-.3	(3)	(3)	—
Mining	1.8	4.2	+2.4	(3)	(3)	—
Construction	4.9	3.7	-1.2	.1	(3)	-.1
Manufacturing	16.2	23.9	+7.7	3.2	13.4	+10.2
Metals, chemicals, rubber	5.5	13.1	+7.6	.2	7.3	+7.1
Food, clothing, textiles, leather	2.8	4.7	+1.9	1.8	3.9	+2.1
All other manufacturing	7.9	6.1	-1.8	1.2	2.2	+1.0
Transportation, communication, public utilities	6.8	10.1	+3.3	.2	1.1	+.9
Trade	9.9	10.9	+1.0	4.0	10.5	+6.5
Finance, insurance, real estate	1.9	1.6	-.3	.8	1.3	+.5
Business and repair services, including auto	1.7	1.5	-.2	.1	.1	—
Domestic and personal services	8.4	6.1	-2.3	68.6	54.4	-14.2
Amusement, recreation	1.0	.4	-.6	.3	.4	+.1
Professional services	2.9	3.2	+.3	6.1	7.5	+1.4
Government	1.7	4.0	+2.3	.5	3.2	+2.7
All employed Negroes	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	—

¹ Data for April 1940 are from 16th Decennial Census of U. S., Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force, Part 1, U. S. Summary, table 76 (pp. 188 et seq.). Data for April 1944 are from Monthly Report on the Labor Force, Bureau of the Census. All data exclude persons whose industry was not ascertainable. April 1944 percentages are for all nonwhites but do not result in any significant difference from the distribution for Negroes only. The industrial categories in this table differ from the occupational categories in table 1, even though the titles of the categories may be similar. For example, there are more persons with domestic and personal service occupations (table 1) than there are persons employed in the domestic and personal service industries (table 3) because large numbers with personal service occupations are working in other industries—e. g., waiters and waitresses are classified in retail trade.

² Less than 0.05 percent.

Essentially the same pattern of war-time change in industrial distribution occurred among the Negro women. The data show a similar trend from farm to factory, although the decline in service activities and the increase in employment in trade is particularly marked among the women. Here again, by far the most important change in employment in the manufacturing field was also in the "metals, chemicals, and rubber" group. Fewer than 3,000 Negro women were employed in this group in April 1940; 4 years later 50 times as many were so employed.

One other field of employment which deserves special mention is government service. Negroes in public employment in April 1944 numbered about 200,000 in contrast to fewer than 60,000 in the same month of 1940.

Negroes' Post-War Employment Prospects

With reference to the post-war job prospects of the Negro worker it may be noted, on the basis of a comparison of the 1940 and 1944 figures on the occupational and industrial distribution of the Negro labor force, that (1) the Negro has made his greatest employment gains in those occupations (especially semiskilled factory jobs) which will suffer the severest cutbacks during the post-war period, (2) further, he has made his biggest advances in those industries (especially the "metals, chemicals, and rubber" group) which will experience the greatest post-war declines.

In addition, it should be pointed out that the Negro gains have taken place in congested production areas where considerable readjustment of the labor force will be necessary. In general, the Negro has been able to get his war job in areas where a substantial proportion of the labor force was also engaged in war work. Information for four major congested production areas (Mobile, Charleston, Detroit and Willow Run, and Hampton Roads) shows that among the more than half a million in-migrants, about 1 in every 4 was a Negro.³ These cities, of course, will experience considerable labor turnover in the immediate post-war period.

Finally, it also should be noted that in those occupations and industries in which the Negro has made his greatest employment advances, he was generally among the last to be hired. Therefore under seniority rules he is more likely to be laid off than the average worker in these occupations.

The war has given many Negroes their first opportunity to demonstrate ability to perform basic factory operations in a semiskilled and skilled capacity. The consolidation of the Negro's gains in the post-war period (and this is true, of course, for a sizable proportion of other workers as well) is dependent in large measure upon the volume of employment that then prevails.

³ Cf. Bureau of the Census, *Population Reports*, Series CA-3, Nos. 1, 4, 7, and 9.

Teen-Age Youth in the Wartime Labor Force¹

Summary

THE group of teen-age boys and girls has supplied more additional wartime workers than any other group in the population of the United States. In April 1944 the number of teen-age youths in the labor force—either as civilians or members of the armed forces—exceeded normal peacetime expectations by 2.8 million, as compared with corresponding figures of approximately 2 million each for men over 20 and women over 20.

There were close to 5 million 14–19 year old youths in the civilian labor force in April 1944 and an additional 1½ million in the armed forces—a total of 6½ million. The teen-age labor force in the autumn of 1944 was of approximately the same magnitude. Reference to April data is made because special tabulations from the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force, April 1944, provide the latest available information on the school attendance, residence, hours of work, and industrial distribution of 14–19 year old boys and girls. These wartime activities of teen-age youths not only provide a fuller description of the ways in which young persons have aided the war effort, but also provide an insight into the problems of their post-war readjustment.

About a third (1,500,000) of the wartime civilian workers 14–19 years of age are still attending school. On the basis of pre-war trends only about 400,000 students would be expected to be in the labor market. Thus, about 1,100,000 of the extra teen-age workers are school youngsters generally working part time (average, 20 hours per week). In addition there are 1,000,000 who left school early to take full-time civilian jobs or enter the armed forces and 700,000—principally older teen-age girls—who took wartime jobs but who ordinarily would be homemakers or other out-of-school nonworkers. Young workers not attending school are generally on the job full time—an average of 46 hours per week, or approximately the same as the average for older workers.

Retail trade is the largest single source of employment for young workers of both sexes who are attending school. Agriculture and manufacturing also employ substantial numbers of boy student workers, while service is an important secondary employer of girls attending school.

Among out-of-school young workers, agriculture employs the largest number of boys, whereas manufacturing is the largest employer of girls. The most important secondary sources of employment are trade and service for the girls and manufacturing for the boys.

The expansion in the teen-age labor force is mostly a temporary wartime development. Many of the young workers still in school are likely to quit work and devote full time to their studies when wartime pressures are removed and part-time jobs are less easy to find. Post-war reductions in the out-of-school labor force, however, will come about primarily through resumption of pre-war trends toward longer schooling rather than through actual withdrawals from the labor market. Young persons who have already left school are generally very reluctant to return.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Lester M. Pearlman and Leonard Eskin. Ethel Blaine assisted in the statistical compilations.

TEEN-AGE YOUTH IN WARTIME LABOR FORCE

7

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Excess of April 1944 Labor Force over "Normal," Classified by Age and Sex*¹

Age group	Estimated excess (in thousands) over "normal"		
	Both sexes	Males	Females
	6,700	3,700	3,000
Total, 14 years and over ²			
14-19 years ³	2,760	1,690	1,070
14-17 years	1,730	1,090	640
18-19 years	1,030	600	430
20 years and over	3,940	2,010	1,930
20-24 years	930	510	420
25-34 years	210	200	10
35-44 years	840	210	630
45-54 years	840	280	560
55-64 years	670	390	280
65 years and over	450	420	30

¹ Based on comparisons between (1) estimates of actual labor force compiled from data on civilian labor force from the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force plus unofficial estimates of armed forces; and (2) estimates of "normal" labor force adapted from Census Bureau release P-44, No. 12. Actual labor-force estimates were adjusted to exclude an estimated 200,000 teen-age persons on temporary jobs who were included in the Census enumeration for April 1944 because the Census week coincided with Easter week. Adjustments were made on the basis of interpolations between March and May and experience in previous years. For a complete discussion of the data in the table, see Sources of Wartime Labor Supply in the United States, in *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1944 (p. 264).

² The excess in the teen-age group is somewhat overstated because the "normal" labor-force estimates refer to the last week in March, whereas the actual estimates refer to the first week in April. There is a slight seasonal rise between these two weeks.

*Changes in Activity Status of Teen-Age Population, 1940-44*²

Under ordinary peacetime circumstances the teen-age labor force would have been expected to decline by about 400,000 between 1940 and 1944 because of a decline in the total population aged 14-19 and a continuation of the pre-war trend toward longer school attendance. Actually, however, the number of young persons in the labor force increased by 2,400,000, with the result that the level exceeded normal peacetime expectations by 2,800,000 in April 1944. A brief summary of changes in the activity status of the 14-19 year old population is presented below:

	1940	1944	Change 1940-44
	(Figures in thousands)		
Total population aged 14-19 ¹	14,630	14,000	-630
Total attending school	9,159	² 7,930	-1,229
Total not attending school	5,471	6,070	+599
In the labor force	4,037	³ 6,470	+2,433
In the armed forces	66	1,680	+1,614
Employed in civilian jobs	1,705	³ 4,610	+2,905
Attending school	212	³ 1,430	+1,218
Not attending school	1,493	3,180	+1,687
Unemployed	2,266	180	-2,086
Not in the labor force	10,593	7,530	-3,063
Attending school	8,809	⁴ 6,460	-2,349
Not attending school	1,784	1,070	-714

¹ Excludes persons in institutions.

² Excludes some persons not in the labor force and attending school. See footnote 4.

³ Adjusted to exclude an estimated 200,000 temporary Easter workers (see table 2, footnote 6).

⁴ Includes only those who report school attendance as the reason for not being in labor force. Excludes persons who may be nonworkers primarily for other reasons (e. g., unable to work), but who may nevertheless be attending school.

⁵ The 1944 data in this article are based on the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force for April 1944. In interpreting these data, it should be borne in mind that the Census sample is small and subject to a certain amount of sampling error, particularly in view of the fact that the 14-19 year old group to which these data refer is a relatively small part of the total sample. In general, estimates for categories containing 1,000,000 persons or more may be considered a fairly reliable indication of the number of persons in these categories. For categories containing fewer than 1,000,000 persons, however, the estimates should be interpreted as indicating only general relationships among the characteristics shown,

STUDENT-WORKERS

About 1½ million 14–19 year olds were both attending school and in the labor force in April 1944; this was more than four times the corresponding number in April 1940, despite a decline of 1,200,000 in the total number attending school between 1940 and 1944 (table 2). Student-workers in April 1944, comprised approximately one-third of all civilian workers 14–19 years of age. The proportion of workers who were attending school varied inversely with age, two-thirds of the 14–15 year old workers being in school, as compared with only one-tenth of the 18–19 year olds (table 3).

TABLE 2.—*Population Aged 14–19 Years, Classified by School Attendance, Labor-Force Status, and Sex, April 1940 and 1944*¹

Year	Population aged 14–19 years ²			Attending school				Not attending school		
	Total (in thousands)	In labor force		Total ⁴		In labor force		Total (in thousands)	In labor force	
		Number (in thousands)	Percent of population ³	Number (in thousands)	Percent of population ³	Number (in thousands)	Percent of school population ³		Number (in thousands)	Percent of nonschool population ³
<i>Both sexes</i>										
1940	14,630	8,437	57.6	9,159	62.0	350	3.8	5,471	8,3687	67.4
1944:										
Total	14,000	8,6470	46.2	7,930	56.6	1,460	18.5	6,070	5,010	82.4
Civilian	12,320	4,790	38.9	7,930	64.4	1,460	18.5	4,390	3,330	75.7
<i>Males</i>										
1940	7,337	5,2642	36.0	4,639	62.5	250	5.4	2,698	2,392	88.7
1944:										
Total	7,060	4,140	58.6	3,720	52.7	920	24.9	3,340	3,220	96.2
Civilian	5,380	2,460	45.7	3,720	69.2	920	24.9	1,660	1,540	92.3
<i>Females</i>										
1940	7,293	1,395	19.1	4,520	61.6	100	2.2	2,773	1,295	46.7
1944	6,940	2,330	33.6	4,210	60.6	540	12.8	2,730	1,700	65.6

¹ 1940 figures are estimated from data in the following reports of the Sixteenth Census of U. S.: Population, Vol. IV, p. 94, and Estimates of Labor Force, Employment and Unemployment in the United States, 1940 and 1930, p. 1; 1944 figures are from Bureau of the Census, Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Estimates for 1944 are rounded to the nearest ten thousand. May differ from published Census figures because of adjustments noted and differences caused by rounding.

² Excludes persons in institutions.

³ Percentages computed from unrounded figures.

⁴ Excludes some persons not in the labor force and attending school. See footnote 4 to tabulation on p. 7.

³ Data include an estimated 23,000 teen-age boys in the armed forces outside continental United States, who were not included in the 1940 Census count.

⁴ 1944 data are adjusted to exclude an estimated 200,000 persons on temporary Easter jobs reported as in the labor force and attending school. Approximately 75,000 persons for whom complete information was not available are distributed according to the distribution of those with known characteristics.

Because of the relatively small number of 18–19 year olds attending school, only 200,000 of the student-workers came from this age group, although a greater percentage of 18–19 year old students were in the labor force than was the case in the younger age groups. About 700,000 or nearly half of the student-workers were aged 16–17 and an additional 600,000 were in the 14–15 year group. The rate of labor-force participation among 16–17 year old students (24 percent) was twice as high as among the younger students.

Boys aged 14–19 attending school and working outnumbered girls in this category 900,000 to 500,000. The proportion of school boys in the labor force was about twice as great as that of school girls in the same age groups, the disparity being greatest in the younger ages.

Virtually all of the student-workers were attending day school. The number of youngsters in the labor force who attended night school was considerably less than 50,000.

OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUNG WORKERS

Out-of-school young workers in civilian activities numbered 3,300,000 in April 1944—approximately 300,000 below the April 1940 total. This was in sharp contrast to the group of student-workers, whose number in 1944 far exceeded that in 1940. The decline in the number of workers not attending school was attributable to the entry of boys into the armed forces. The draft made deep inroads in the out-of-school labor force because about two-thirds of the draft-eligible boys, i. e., those aged 18-19, typically do not attend school and are in the civilian labor force. Moreover, the fact that a relatively high proportion of these 18-19-year-olds were already in the labor force limited the further labor-market participation of this age group. These factors, along with the general drop in the 14-19 year old population, outweighed the wartime gains in the number of out-of-school workers resulting from an increased rate of labor-market participation and the addition of workers who normally would be in school.

TABLE 3.—*Civilian Population Aged 14-19 Years, Classified by School Attendance, Labor-Force Status, Age Group, and Sex, April 1944*¹

Age and sex	Civilian population, aged 14-19 years ²		Attending school				Not attending school			
	Total (in thous- ands)	In labor force	Total ⁴		In labor force		Total (in thous- ands)	In labor force		
			Num- ber (in thous- ands)	Per- cent of popula- tion ³	Num- ber (in thous- ands)	Per- cent of popula- tion ³				
Both sexes, 14-19 years	12,320	\$ 4,790	38.9	7,930	64.4	\$ 1,460	18.5	4,390	3,330	75.7
14-17 years	9,170	2,710	29.6	7,230	78.8	1,250	17.3	1,940	1,460	75.0
14-15 years	4,700	810	17.3	4,260	90.6	530	12.6	440	280	62.5
16-17 years	4,470	1,900	42.5	2,970	66.4	720	24.2	1,500	1,180	78.7
18-19 years	3,150	2,080	65.9	700	22.3	210	29.8	2,450	1,870	76.2
Males, 14-19 years	5,380	\$ 2,460	45.7	3,720	69.2	\$ 920	24.9	1,660	1,540	92.3
14-17 years	4,530	1,780	39.2	3,520	77.6	840	24.0	1,010	940	92.2
14-15 years	2,400	600	25.1	2,160	90.2	390	18.3	240	210	87.3
16-17 years	2,130	1,180	55.2	1,360	63.5	450	33.1	770	730	93.7
18-19 years	850	680	80.0	200	23.9	(*)	40.4	650	600	92.4
Females, 14-19 years	6,940	2,330	33.6	4,210	60.6	540	12.8	2,730	1,790	65.6
14-17 years	4,610	930	20.1	3,710	80.0	410	11.1	930	520	56.2
14-15 years	2,300	210	9.1	2,100	91.0	140	6.6	200	(*)	34.3
16-17 years	2,310	720	30.9	1,610	69.1	270	16.8	730	450	62.5
18-19 years	2,300	1,400	60.7	500	21.7	130	25.5	1,800	1,270	70.4

¹ Data are based upon Bureau of the Census, Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Estimates are rounded to the nearest ten thousand. May differ from published Census figures because of adjustments noted and differences caused by rounding.

² Excludes persons in institutions.

³ Percentages computed from unrounded numbers.

⁴ Excludes some persons attending school and not in the labor force. See footnote 4 to tabulation on p. 7.

⁵ Excludes an estimated 200,000 persons on temporary Easter jobs reported as in the labor force and attending school and includes 75,000 for whom complete information was not available (see table 2, footnote 6).

⁶ Estimates less than 100,000 not shown.

Because only 10 percent of the youths aged 14-15 were not attending school, there were relatively few persons of this age in the out-of-school labor force. Only 300,000 of the 3,300,000 young out-of-school work-

ers were in the 14-15 age group. Girls outnumbered boys by more than 2 to 1 in the 18-19 year old bracket where the size of the male civilian labor force was cut down by the effect of the draft, but in the younger age groups the ratio was more nearly 2 to 1 in favor of the boys. As in the case of student-workers, the percentage of nonschool boys in the labor force considerably exceeded the percentage of girls, particularly in the younger age groups (table 3).

Extra Wartime Workers Aged 14-19 Years

As pointed out above, the teen-age labor force exceeded peacetime expectations by about 2,800,000 in April 1944. The extra workers have come from three principal groups, as follows:

	Number (in millions)		
	Total	Boys	Girls
Total	2.8	1.7	1.1
Those who took a job, but remained in school	1.1	.7	.4
Those who left school early to take a job or enter the armed forces	1.0	.8	.2
In the civilian labor force	.5	.3	.2
In the armed forces	.5	.5	---
Those who took a job, but would normally be out-of-school nonworkers	.7	.2	.5

Since the proportion of school boys and girls who normally work is so small—about 4 percent in 1940—it is not surprising that 1,100,000 of the 1,500,000 student-workers represent extra workers. Young persons still in school account for as many of the abnormal wartime additions to the labor force as did those who left school early to take civilian jobs or enter the armed forces.

Of the million young workers who left school early, half were in civilian occupations and half were in the armed forces. This is not to say that 500,000 young men would not be in the labor force if they had not entered the armed forces. The wartime increase in the rate of labor-market participation among civilians makes it likely that a high proportion of these boys would be at work even if they were not in the armed forces.

The 700,000 extra teen-age workers who would not have been in school even in peacetime included 500,000 young women, most of whom would ordinarily have been homemakers. These were probably newly married persons who would normally have quit work upon marriage and single girls who would ordinarily have helped out around home instead of joining the labor force. It is interesting to note that the group which came from out-of-school nonworkers made up almost half of the extra female workers in the teen-age labor force.

Industry Distribution of Teen-Agers³

Although every industry except mining and construction has had a substantial increase in teen-age workers since 1940, the gains have been uneven so that the industrial-employment pattern of young

³ The data presented in the preceding section have been adjusted to exclude an estimated 200,000 student-workers on temporary Easter jobs, but there is no basis for allocating the temporary workers among the various industry and hours categories into which the data are classified in this section and the following section. The industry and hours data, therefore, have not been adjusted to exclude temporary Easter workers.

workers has changed considerably. Manufacturing has replaced agriculture as the largest employer of teen-age youth, and retail trade has gained in relative importance, while the service industries have lost (table 4).

While the rise of manufacturing over agriculture as an employer of teen-age youth represents a significant shift in the employment pattern of this group, the April level of 14-19 year old employment in agriculture understates the importance of the group to the farm labor force. The seasonal demand for farm labor during the summer months is met in large measure by young family workers on school vacation. During the period from April to July, this past year, farm employment increased by about 2,000,000 and 14-19 year olds accounted for about 850,000 of this gain.

The gain in retail trade must be discounted somewhat in view of the fact that the 1944 figure included temporary Easter workers, but the changes are large enough to point conclusively to a substantial increase in the relative importance of retail trade as an employer of young workers.

Contrary to the general situation, the percentage of teen-age boys employed in service industries actually showed a slight increase, but there was a striking decline (from 46 percent to 21 percent) in the percentage of girls engaged in service industries (table 4). In this connection, it should be noted that boys in service industries are fairly well scattered throughout the field, being typically employed in personal service (e. g., shoe shining), amusement (e. g., bowling alleys, theaters), automobile-repair shops, and professional services. On the other hand, more than half of the girls in service industries are employed in domestic service in which the number of workers has declined considerably during the war.

The labor force in every industrial group is now composed more largely of teen-age workers than was the case in 1940. In retail trade, the proportion of young employees increased from 6 percent (400,000) in 1940 to 15 percent (1,000,000) in 1944, and lesser gains took place in all other industrial groups.

Although the gain in teen-age employment in manufacturing is in line with the general employment situation, that in retail trade is not typical. Employment of persons 20 years of age and over in retail trade actually declined by 400,000 between 1940 and 1944 largely because of the shift of workers to higher-paying war jobs and inductions into the armed forces. The entrance of large numbers of student-workers into industries like retail trade and service, which can utilize unskilled young part-time workers, has been an important alleviating factor in their manpower problems. On the other hand, manufacturing industries, particularly the munitions group (metals, chemicals, and rubber), have employed relatively more out-of-school young workers. These developments are reflected in the fact that among student-workers the number engaged in retail trade in 1944 was more than double the number in manufacturing, whereas conversely the participation of out-of-school youth in manufacturing was almost triple that in retail trade (table 4).

TABLE 4.—*Employed Youths Aged 14–19 Years, Classified by Industry Division, School Attendance, and Sex, April 1940 and April 1944*¹

Industry division	Both sexes			Males			Females					
	1944			1944			1944					
	1940	Total	At- tend- ing school	Not at- tend- ing school	1940	Total	At- tend- ing school	Not at- tend- ing school	1940	Total	At- tend- ing school	Not at- tend- ing school
Number (in thousands)												
Total ²	2,609	4,770	1,620	3,150	1,706	2,560	1,100	1,460	903	2,210	520	1,690
Agriculture	891	1,090	360	730	801	960	300	660	90	130	(4)	4.5
Manufacturing	508	1,390	290	1,100	312	660	240	420	196	730	(4)	680
Metals, chemicals, rubber	128	560	(4)	480	89	250	(4)	190	39	310	(4)	290
Other	380	830	210	620	223	410	180	230	157	420	(4)	390
Retail trade	411	1,010	600	410	257	470	340	130	154	540	260	280
Finance and service	554	690	270	420	135	230	140	(4)	419	460	130	330
Other ³	245	590	100	490	201	240	(4)	160	44	350	(4)	330
Percentage distribution, by industry ⁴												
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture	34.2	22.9	22.1	23.3	46.9	37.7	27.9	45.0	10.0	5.8	10.3	4.5
Manufacturing	19.5	29.2	17.7	35.1	18.3	25.8	22.1	28.6	21.7	33.1	8.5	40.7
Metals, chemicals, rubber	4.9	11.8	4.7	15.5	5.2	10.0	5.8	13.1	4.3	14.0	2.5	17.6
Other	14.6	17.4	13.0	19.6	13.1	15.8	16.3	15.5	17.4	19.1	6.0	23.1
Retail trade	15.7	21.2	37.1	13.1	15.1	18.2	30.7	8.8	17.0	24.7	50.1	16.8
Finance and service	21.2	14.5	16.5	13.5	7.9	8.8	12.4	6.1	46.4	21.0	24.9	19.9
Other ⁵	9.4	12.2	6.6	15.0	11.8	9.5	6.9	11.5	4.9	15.4	6.2	18.1
Youths aged 14–19 as percent of all employed workers of each sex in each industry ⁶												
Total	5.9	9.3	3.2	6.1	5.1	7.4	3.2	4.2	8.3	13.1	3.1	10.0
Agriculture	10.6	14.6	4.8	9.8	10.2	14.4	4.6	9.8	18.6	16.1	6.7	9.4
Manufacturing	4.8	8.0	1.6	6.4	3.8	5.7	2.1	3.6	8.4	13.1	.8	12.3
Metals, chemicals, rubber	3.0	5.7	.8	4.9	2.4	3.5	.9	2.6	7.8	11.7	.5	11.2
Other	6.0	11.4	2.9	8.5	4.9	9.3	4.1	5.2	8.6	14.5	1.1	13.4
Retail trade	6.5	15.5	9.2	6.3	5.7	13.1	9.5	3.6	8.3	18.3	8.8	9.5
Finance and service	5.5	6.7	2.6	4.1	2.9	4.5	2.7	1.8	7.9	8.8	2.5	6.3
Other ⁵	2.7	6.1	1.1	5.0	2.4	3.3	1.0	2.3	4.8	15.8	1.5	14.3

¹ 1940 figures are from Sixteenth Census of U. S., Population, Volume III; 1944 figures from Bureau of the Census, Monthly Report on the Labor Force. 1944 estimates are rounded to the nearest ten thousand. May differ from published Census figures because of adjustments noted and differences caused by rounding.

² Includes an estimated 200,000 workers on temporary Easter jobs (see footnote 3, p. 10).

³ Excludes 70,000 teen-age persons with industry not reported in 1940 and 30,000 with school attendance unreported in 1944.

⁴ Estimates less than 100,000 not shown.

⁵ Includes forestry and fishing; mining; construction; transportation, communication, and public utilities; wholesale trade; government.

⁶ Percentages computed from unrounded numbers.

STUDENT-WORKERS

Next to retail trade, which accounted for almost two-fifths of the student-workers, the most important employer of youths attending school was agriculture, with a little more than one-fifth. Manufacturing and service employed a little less than one-fifth each.

Boys attending school and working were considerably more diversified in their industrial activity than girl student-workers. Almost half of the 500,000 girls had retail jobs and one-fourth were engaged in service industries, with relatively small numbers employed in

agriculture, manufacturing, and other activities. Among the 1,100,000 boy student-workers, on the other hand, the number in agriculture was almost as large as the number in retail trade (340,000) and substantial numbers were also employed in manufacturing (table 4). The 240,000 schoolboys in manufacturing include a considerable number of newsboys who are counted in manufacturing under the Census industry classification because they work for newspaper printing and publishing companies.

In all, there were twice as many schoolboys working as there were schoolgirls, with the boys outnumbering the girls by substantial margins in every field except services, in which the number of boy and girl student-workers was approximately equal.

Classification of the student-workers by age (table 5) reveals no important deviations in particular age groups from the general pattern of diversification of boys among the different industry divisions and concentration of girls in trade and service.

The great majority of the schoolboys employed on farms—even in the older teen-age group—were unpaid family workers. As would be expected, there were relatively fewer unpaid family workers in the out-of-school group and within this group the percentage of unpaid workers was considerably larger among the younger than among the older teen-age boys.

Percent of unpaid family workers among teen-age boys employed on farms, April 1944

	<i>Attending school</i>	<i>Not attending school</i>
Boys aged 14-19 years	80.4	48.1
14-15 years	84.6	64.3
16-17 years	77.2	53.4
18-19 years	67.1	34.2

In all, about 60 percent of the boys employed on farms were unpaid family workers. This compares with only 3½ percent of the boys employed in nonagricultural industry. The suitability of agricultural work to the employment of young unpaid family workers largely accounts for the higher rates of labor-market participation which prevail among boys in farm areas as compared with nonfarm areas.

Civilian labor force

April 1944¹

(in thousands)

Percent in labor force²

	<i>Farm</i>	<i>Nonfarm</i>	<i>Farm</i>	<i>Nonfarm</i>
--	-------------	----------------	-------------	----------------

Boys aged 14-19 years	970	1,660	67.2	42.4
Attending school	300	820	40.1	27.5
Not attending school	670	840	96.1	89.3

¹ Excludes persons not reporting school attendance.

² Percentages based on unrounded figures.

OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUNG WORKERS

Over one-third of the 3 million employed out-of-school youths were in manufacturing and another quarter were engaged in farm work. Employment of the nonstudent group in trade and service industries was of secondary importance in contrast to the situation among student-workers. Within manufacturing a much larger proportion

of the out-of-school workers was employed in munitions industries than was the case among young workers attending school (table 4).

Agriculture employed almost half of the civilian boys not attending school, but was a negligible source of employment for the girls, two-fifths of whom were engaged in manufacturing industries and another two-fifths in trade and service.

As would be expected, a much larger proportion of employed 14–15 year old boys not attending school were working in agriculture than was the case in the older age groups. It is interesting to note, however, that contrary to usual expectations, the percentage of the employed 18–19 year old in agriculture exceeded the corresponding boys percentage for the 16–17 year group (table 5). This may reflect the effect of the policy of deferring necessary agricultural workers from the draft.

The trade and service industries were the primary sources of employment for younger girls not attending school, while manufacturing was most important among the older ones. Even in the older age groups, however, trade and service taken together were almost as important as manufacturing.

TABLE 5.—Employed Youths Aged 14–19 Years, Classified by Industry, School Attendance, Age Group, and Sex, April 1944¹

Industry division and sex	14–15 years		16–17 years		18–19 years	
	Attend-ing school	Not at- tending school	Attend-ing school	Not at- tending school	Attend-ing school	Not at- tending school
	600	260	810	1,110	210	1,780
Percentage distribution, by industry						
Both sexes—total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture	30.2	57.8	18.8	26.1	11.6	16.3
Manufacturing	14.4	11.1	20.0	36.6	18.0	37.7
Metals, chemicals, rubber	.7	1.1	7.1	13.0	7.3	19.1
Other manufacturing	13.7	10.0	12.9	23.6	10.7	18.6
Retail trade	36.3	13.8	39.8	13.7	28.7	12.7
Finance and service	16.1	13.4	14.3	12.0	26.2	14.4
All others ²	3.0	3.9	7.1	11.6	15.5	18.9
Males—total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture	33.9	69.3	23.6	37.5	22.3	45.5
Manufacturing	18.5	10.6	24.7	34.5	24.7	27.8
Metals, chemicals, rubber	.9	1.5	9.1	15.4	12.4	14.3
Other manufacturing	17.6	9.1	15.6	19.1	12.3	13.5
Retail trade	32.7	9.1	30.4	10.5	22.2	6.6
Finance and service	11.0	7.0	12.7	6.4	18.5	5.4
All others ³	3.9	4.0	8.6	11.1	12.3	14.7
Females—total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture	18.0	21.0	8.7	7.4	4.8	2.6
Manufacturing	.7	12.9	10.3	40.0	13.6	42.4
Metals, chemicals, rubber	.7	12.9	7.2	31.0	4.0	21.4
Other manufacturing	.7	12.9	7.2	31.0	9.6	21.0
Retail trade	48.2	29.0	59.3	18.8	32.8	15.4
Finance and service	33.1	33.9	17.5	21.4	31.2	18.6
All others ³	3.2	4.2	12.4	17.6	21.0	

¹ Based upon Bureau of the Census, Monthly Report on the Labor Force, but excludes 30,000 persons whose school attendance was not reported. Estimates are rounded to the nearest ten thousand. May differ from published Census figures because of adjustments noted and differences caused by rounding.

² Includes an estimated 200,000 persons on temporary Easter jobs reported as in the labor force and attending school. (See footnote 3, p. 10.)

³ Includes forestry and fishing; mining; construction; transportation, communication, and public utilities; wholesale trade; government.

*Hours Worked*⁴

STUDENT-WORKERS

Although student-workers comprise a third of the 14-19 year old civilian labor force, they supply less than a sixth of the man-hours, since students' hours of work are less than half the average for young workers not attending school. School boys and girls were typically at work on part-time jobs, as their average workweek of 20 hours indicates (table 6). It is noteworthy, however, that these youngsters were occupied either at school or on jobs an average of 48 hours per week—slightly longer than the workweek for out-of-school youths.

Except in the case of 18-19 year olds, in which group male employment was slight, boys worked 4 to 5 hours longer per week than girls of the same age. The fact that many boys were employed on farms contributed considerably to this difference, since the average for all persons working in agriculture (55 hours) was 10 hours longer than in nonagricultural industry.

TABLE 6.—*Average Weekly Hours¹ Worked by Employed Youths Aged 14-19 Years, Classified by School Attendance, Age Group, and Sex, April 1944²*

Age group	Attending school			Not attending school		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Total, 14-19 years.....	20.4	21.1	18.9	45.8	349.8	42.0
14-15 years.....	18.8	19.6	16.0	44.3	46.7	36.6
16-17 years.....	21.6	23.3	18.0	45.2	48.5	39.7
18-19 years.....	23.2	21.8	24.1	46.3	53.0	43.2

¹ Averages are calculated as arithmetic means.

² Based upon Bureau of the Census, *Monthly Report on the Labor Force*.

³ High average hours for boys not attending school are due to the fact that 45 percent of them were employed in agriculture (see tables 4 and 5).

OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUNG WORKERS

Teen-aged persons not attending school were working an average week of 46 hours—a workweek approximately the same as the average for older persons. However, relatively more of these youngsters were employed in agriculture where hours are longer (23 percent of the employed youngsters were in agriculture as compared with only 15 percent of the older persons). Over half of the out-of-school young workers were working 48 hours per week or more, while a fourth worked 40-47 hours (table 7).

Boys not attending school worked an average of 50 hours a week—8 hours longer than girls. The relatively long hours for boys may be traced to the fact that almost half of them were working in agriculture. Older youths worked longer hours than the younger ones. Considering boys and girls separately, the 18-19 year olds worked an average of 6-7 hours per week longer than the 14-15 year olds (table 6).

⁴ The fact that 40 percent of the student-workers were on Easter school vacation at the time of the Census enumeration in April 1944 would be expected to make the average workweek for youths attending school longer than is typically the case. A special tabulation covering only the 60 percent not on school vacation, however, showed average hours not significantly different from the average for all student-workers. It is not certain, however, that the areas where students were not on school vacation are representative of the country as a whole.

TABLE 7.—*Employed Youths Aged 14–19 Years, Classified by Weekly Hours Worked, School Attendance, and Sex, April 1944*

Hours	Total		Male		Female	
	Attending school	Not attending school	Attending school	Not attending school	Attending school	Not attending school
Percentage distribution, by hours worked						
10 hours or less.....	22.3	3.6	18.2	3.1	30.8	4.0
11–19 hours.....	27.7	1.6	27.3	1.8	28.5	1.5
20–29 hours.....	29.4	3.6	33.3	3.6	21.3	3.6
30–39 hours.....	11.1	8.1	11.5	7.0	10.2	9.0
40 hours.....	3.8	17.2	3.4	11.8	4.7	21.7
41–47 hours.....	1.8	10.0	2.2	6.3	.9	13.2
48 hours.....	1.5	31.7	1.4	24.7	1.9	37.8
49 hours and over.....	2.4	24.2	2.7	41.7	1.7	9.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number employed (in thousands) ¹	1,620	3,150	1,100	1,460	520	1,690

¹ Data are from Bureau of the Census, Monthly Report on the Labor Force, but exclude 30,000 persons whose school attendance or hours worked were not reported. Estimates are rounded to the nearest ten thousand. May differ from published Census figures because of adjustments noted and differences as a result of rounding.

Youths in the Post-War Labor Force

The expansion in the number of teen-age workers since 1940 is largely temporary. Within a year or two after the end of the war the great majority of the extra youngsters who have taken wartime jobs or entered the armed forces will have reached the age at which they normally would have sought employment. Only among those girls who might ordinarily never have sought work outside the home will there be any permanent additions to the working population. A certain percentage of these will continue in the labor market because of their job experience during the war, but after the first few post-war years they will no longer be in the teen-age group.

The teen-age labor force—at least in the out-of-school group—will tend to return to a pre-war normal because wartime developments have run counter to deep-set long-run trends toward longer schooling and less labor-market participation among young persons. Even if job opportunities continue to be plentiful after the post-war readjustment, it is unlikely that there will be a reversal of this trend, which has persisted through peacetime periods of both prosperity and depression.

The number of in-school workers, however, will vary with the level of economic activity. If a high level of employment is maintained, the number of students who take advantage of the opportunities for part-time and summer work will probably exceed the number who were in the pre-war labor market, although they will undoubtedly be considerably fewer in number than the wartime student-workers. When wartime demands for labor slacken, many of the million extra workers who are still in school will no doubt quit the labor market and devote full time to their studies.

An entirely different situation will prevail among out-of-school young workers. This group will be reduced to pre-war levels, or perhaps below these levels, only as younger children remain in school

longer in accordance with pre-war trends. It is very unlikely that actual withdrawals from the labor market will play a major role in the out-of-school group. Once young persons have left school they are very reluctant to return.

Larger numbers of demobilized servicemen will return to school than might otherwise be the case, because many of them did not leave school voluntarily and because of the special inducements offered by the "G. I. Bill of Rights." Even here, however, it should be remembered that with our post-war military establishment likely to be maintained considerably above pre-war levels and with order of demobilization being determined largely by length of service and number of dependents, very few members of the armed forces are likely to be returned to civilian life while they are still under 20. The older youths demobilized after the war may be loath to delay their entrance into the civilian labor market by returning to school full time—especially since job opportunities for veterans will be better than average.

The adoption of compulsory peacetime military training would tend to reduce both the number in school and the number of civilian workers among boys in their late teens and early twenties.

Among young persons who quit school voluntarily to take wartime civilian jobs, there is even less likelihood of any large-scale return to school than there is in the case of demobilized veterans. These youngsters should be given every possible encouragement to resume their education, especially in view of the fact that any unemployment involved in the transition from war to peace will fall heavily upon the young workers, many of whom will find their wartime experience and training of little value in obtaining peacetime jobs.

Labor Conditions in China

Summary

AGRICULTURE, for the most part in the form of small holdings by proprietors or tenants, constitutes the source of livelihood of the vast majority of China's population of 450 million or more. There is a general absence of mechanical equipment and of work animals, and farm labor is almost entirely a family matter. There are very few hired farm laborers. Traditionally the Chinese farm has been largely self-sufficient, as regards not only food but also clothing and other household articles. In addition, many farm families make articles for sale in the off season.

The working population, other than that engaged in farming, falls into three main groups: (1) Independent workers, whose compensation is essentially a wage for their own labor, (2) "coolie" laborers, several millions in number and mostly unskilled, and (3) industrial workers, employed for wages on a more or less fixed basis in factories, mines, handicraft shops, etc. There were in pre-war China about 4½ million industrial workers of all kinds. Excluding the more primitive shops would reduce this number to about 3,000,000. Of these, some 2 million were employed in factories of various types, about a third being in establishments with modern equipment. In general, factory work was predominantly of an unskilled or semiskilled character. Mechanically trained workers were relatively very few in number. Mining of all kinds employed some 2,700,000 persons, the railroads some 80,000, and approximately 28,000 were in the postal and telegraph services.

Prior to the war a large proportion of the modern factories were foreign-owned, chiefly by Japanese and British interests. The industrial centers were almost wholly in the coastal regions.

Because of the seaboard location of almost all Chinese factories they were occupied by the Japanese soon after their invasion started. Extraordinary efforts were made by Free China to move industrial equipment and personnel into the interior in advance of the Japanese. By 1940, more than 12,000 skilled workers had been transported to the interior, and 70 percent of more than 600 refugee factories were reported to be in operation. Also, about the same time, the Government stated that there were some 2,000 privately owned factories operating in Free China and that by 1942 there were almost 100 State-owned industrial plants. These figures do not include the so-called "industrial cooperatives," the rapid development of which contributed greatly to the ability of Free China to resist the Japanese aggression.

For many years prior to the present war unemployment was a serious problem in China. Although industrialization was in part responsible, much of the difficulty was due to the overpopulation and poverty of the country with the resulting scarcity of remunerative work. Other important factors were the frequent political disturbances and the not infrequent famines, which caused a migration of the working people from the stricken areas.

The prevailing wage rates for men in most lines of work were, very roughly, between 40 and 80 cents (Chinese) per day, or between, say,

\$10 and \$20 (Chinese) per month; this was about \$5 to \$10 in United States currency. Skilled mechanics were paid very much more because of the extreme scarcity of such workers. Wages in the nonindustrialized sections were, on the whole, much lower than in the more modern factories in the coastal areas. Hired farm laborers with experience averaged about \$100 per year with board and room. Independent workers, on the average, seem to have had lower earnings than factory workers and this was also apparently true of the coolies. Women workers usually received from one-half to two-thirds of the rate paid to men, and children a third to a half or even less in many cases. Payments in kind or in various perquisites were common in many of the older Chinese employments. In the modern factories the most important form of wage supplement was the annual bonus at the New Year season. These annual bonuses represented a deeply rooted practice in China, and it is understood were continued by most and possibly all of the foreign-owned factories. Because, generally, both the wives and the children, as well as the husbands, worked, the annual income of the average family in China was considerably higher than the daily or monthly wage rates would indicate. An official study of a large group of Shanghai workers in 1929-30 found that barely one-half of the average annual current income came from the husband's earnings.

The pre-war living standards of the unskilled and semiskilled workers' families, measured by Western ideas, were extremely low. Official studies indicated that the diet was deficient, that the average worker's family had almost no funds for the comforts of living or for cultural development, and that the great majority of families were more or less continually in debt to moneylenders.

The effects of the war on the Chinese economy were particularly evident in the matter of prices and cost of living, in both occupied China and Free China. Actual figures are available only for two cities—Shanghai and Chungking. In Shanghai the cost-of-living index rose from 104 in 1936 to 859 in 1941 and to over 4,000 in the latter part of 1942. In Chungking the index rose from 100 in 1937 to 1,840 in 1941, to more than 4,000 in the latter part of 1942, and had reached 43,000 at the end of 1943. Wage increases, as usual, lagged well behind price increases. In Shanghai in 1941 it was estimated that real wages were only 27 percent of what they had been in 1936. In Chungking it was estimated that in the latter part of 1942 real wages, including various wartime allowances for rice and housing, were about 84 percent of the January-June 1937 level.

Long working hours are traditional in China, but in the native industries are compensated for to some extent by a relatively slow tempo of work. In the modern factories with power equipment, closer supervision of work, and a consequent speeding up of operation, there had been a trend toward the 8-hour day, but this had not progressed very far up to the time of the war. The customary pre-war working hours in industry were from 9 to 10, with longer hours not uncommon. An inquiry by the Chinese Statistical Society, just before the war, found that the average working time in industry was 11.03 hours per day.

As there is nothing equivalent to the western Sunday in China, and no other periodic rest day, industry tends to operate continuously, except for special holidays and for special arrangements made by

numerous individual plants. The influence of Western ideas has made the labor groups more and more insistent on the seventh-day rest, and this has been favored by the National Government.

The National Government has also enacted legislation looking toward the general 8-hour day, but conditions in China were not favorable towards putting such legislation into effect, either before or since the war. Since the war began, indeed, the tendency has been to extend working hours wherever practicable.

The National Government provided by legislation for the establishment of a system of public employment offices but, prior to the war, conditions were not favorable toward the carrying out of this idea, at least on any large scale. After war came, relief agencies and the Government itself fostered employment agencies in an effort to assist in the reorganization of the labor market.

There was practically no protective labor legislation in China prior to the establishment of the Republican Government in Nanking in 1927. One of the Government's first measures was the Factory Act of 1929. It was patterned after advanced Western legislation, as were also other acts of the same period dealing with labor organizations and conciliation and arbitration. In addition, various conventions of the International Labor Organization were formally approved. However, it was recognized that conditions in China would not permit the immediate enforcement in full of these various types of labor legislation, and the policy of gradual application was therefore adopted; progress was being made when war intervened. General supervision over labor regulations and labor matters is under a Ministry of Social Affairs in the National Government.

Labor unions in China, as in other countries, followed industrialization. The ancient Chinese "guild" system rested upon the association of employers and employees in a relatively simple economy, and was thus not adapted to protect the interests of workers in the modern type of large industrial plants, with the changed character of labor-management relationships. Although unionism grew rather slowly, by the time of the Japanese invasion there were 872 registered unions, with a membership of 743,764 just before the war. In the period following the beginning of the war, Government regulations provided for what practically amounted to the compulsory organization of labor, and at the end of 1942 there were reported 4,033 registered unions with a total membership of 1,053,656.

The right of free association and the right to strike were provided in pre-war legislation, but were subject to certain controls, the extent of which is difficult to appraise. Since the war there have been very few industrial disputes in China, but prior to 1939 industrial disputes in China were very frequent and often serious. Conciliation and arbitration of industrial disputes by both public and private agencies are established practices in China and have been formally incorporated into law.

In 1935, just prior to the Japanese invasion, there were, according to Government reports, 26,224 cooperative associations in China. Most of these were rural credit societies; no consumers' societies were reported as being in existence. Conditions attending the Japanese invasion greatly stimulated the cooperative movement, particularly the so-called "industrial cooperatives." Also, consumers' cooperatives were encouraged by law and by the Central Administra-

tion. By the end of 1940 there were some 520 consumers' cooperatives in operation in Free China. The industrial cooperatives were started for the purpose of providing supplies for civilians and for the Army and furnishing employment for the refugees from the invaded areas. By 1940 there were approximately 2,300 of these small decentralized industrial units, in 16 Provinces. Their products included a wide variety of items such as cloth and clothing, flour, paper, coal, leather, chemical supplies, medical supplies, hand grenades, stretchers, wagons, and small machinery. Through consolidation and reorganization the number of industrial cooperatives declined after 1940 although the total output increased. In June 1942, the total number reported was 1,590 with 22,680 members and a much larger, although unreported, number of hired workers.

There is no public system of social insurance in effect in China, although after the war began the Government laid plans for a general scheme of accident and health insurance to be inaugurated in 1943.

Employment Conditions

THE LABOR FORCE

China is predominantly an agricultural country. From 80 to 90 percent of the 450 million people derive their living directly from the land as proprietors or tenants.

For the most part the farms are very small and the equipment is primitive. The work is done almost entirely by family members. There are few farm laborers of the wage-earner class, although persons having small parcels of land often hire out themselves and members of their family in order to supplement their very low incomes. During the off season for farming most farm families carry on some form of native industry. Thus, the simpler kinds of handicraft work, such as weaving and making clothes, have traditionally been done in farm homes, although in recent years the increase in factory-made goods has had disturbing results upon the old economic life.

On the other hand, large numbers of women and girls from the country seek domestic service in the cities in winter, and younger men also seek work in the towns as casual laborers. Usually these movements of workers are seasonal and local, but there have also been migrations of large numbers of persons.

Independent workers—i. e., persons working primarily on their own account—are very numerous. The number was estimated at 8,000,000 a few years before the present war. These workers are self-employed, but their compensation is essentially a wage for their own labor. The group includes masons, carpenters, coppersmiths, firecracker makers, bean-cake makers, cloth weavers, tailors, and blacksmiths.

"Coolie laborers" are still more numerous than the independent workers. One Chinese authority estimated their number as more than 30,000,000. The coolies are mostly unskilled. Some of them, such as mine workers and road builders, are hired by employers at a definite place. Others (such as haulers and carriers at wharves, etc.) work under a contract system. Still others have no definite employer or contracting foreman, and wander from place to place seeking work; among these are the jinriksha and wheelbarrow coolies, sedan-chair bearers, and muleteers.

Industrial workers, in the Western sense of the term, represent a development of only the past 3 or 4 decades. The number of such workers is not known, but the best pre-war estimates, made in the early 1930's, place the number of factory and handicraft workers at 2,000,000, of whom about a third were in modern factories. Mine workers were estimated at 2,300,000, including 700,000 in coal and iron mining and 100,000 in metal mining, the others being in various nonmetal-mining enterprises. Railway workers numbered slightly more than 80,000, and workers in the postal service and telegraph offices 28,000. If from the total of these workers (some 4½ million persons) the approximately 1½ million persons employed in handicraft and small nonmodern factories are excluded, it would appear that industrial workers in pre-war China numbered about 3 millions.

As reported in the Chinese Year Book for 1936-37, a total of 363,322 factories in 13 Provinces and 10 cities employed 2,000,256 workers in 1930. Of these over a third (711,210) were in the Province of Chekiang; Shanghai, Shantung, and Shensi each accounted for about a tenth. Sex and age were not reported for most of these workers.

INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS

Modern manufacturing in China started with the opening of a cotton-cloth factory at Shanghai in 1888 by Chinese capital, but later development was in very considerable part under foreign control. In 1930 there were in Shanghai 81 cotton mills (with 2,326,872 spindles) owned by Chinese, as against 46 mills (with 1,642,680 spindles) owned by foreign interests, mostly Japanese and British.

Textile manufacturing expanded rapidly, but both Chinese and foreigners branched out into other fields, particularly the manufacture of iron and steel, matches, chemicals, foodstuffs, cement and other building materials, and toilet goods. In addition, the British were particularly active in the development of coal mining, their interests being chiefly in the Tientsin area and Central Honan. The Japanese were active in both coal and iron mining and iron production, working principally in Manchuria, but with large interests in Shantung and the Central Yangtze valley.

Primarily, no doubt, because of poor internal transportation facilities, modern factory development in China was largely in or near the seaboard. Shanghai was by far the most important center; other principal factory centers were Canton, Hankow, Tientsin, and Tsing-tao. The area now known as Free China was almost devoid of modern industry in pre-war days, having not a single blast furnace and no coal mine with an annual production of more than 100,000 tons. Of more than 5,000,000 cotton spindles in the country as a whole, only 17,000 were in the interior.

As an employer of labor, cotton manufacturing was by far the most important industry, and, as in Japan, remained the principal employing industry up to the time of the war. Figures are not available for the country as a whole but Shanghai, for which reports are available, was no doubt fairly representative of general conditions. In that area 354,466 persons were employed in 1934, and of this total, the textile industries employed about 60 percent (200,644). The distribution of factory employment in Shanghai is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Employment in Shanghai Industries, by Type of Factory, Sex, and Category of Worker, 1934*

Type of factory	Num- ber of fac- tores	Number of workers				
		Total	Males	Fem- ales	Chil- dren	Appren- tices
All types of factories.....	4,234	354,466	174,849	144,940	10,565	24,112
Power plants.....	13	5,258	5,235	-----	-----	23
Manufacture of machinery.....	552	11,325	6,629	300	20	4,376
Manufacture of electrical machinery and apparatus.....	139	5,325	3,193	1,182	80	870
Metal industries.....	329	5,705	4,332	25	8	1,340
Chemical industries.....	173	9,764	6,018	2,939	168	639
Manufacture of metal products.....	319	7,245	4,937	473	99	1,736
Woodworking industries.....	55	2,941	2,142	409	241	149
Manufacture of bricks, earthenware, glass, etc.....	118	6,240	4,799	272	376	793
Manufacture of paper, bookbinding, and printing.....	403	15,889	11,606	1,391	44	2,848
Construction of boats, ships, and vehicles for land transportation.....	80	8,073	7,756	-----	1	316
Textile industries.....	920	200,644	77,542	106,021	9,043	8,038
Manufacture of leather, rubber products, etc.....	130	13,375	6,210	6,923	28	214
Preparation and manufacture of foods, drinks, and tobacco.....	271	38,434	21,210	16,183	257	784
Manufacture of clothing and allied products.....	434	17,177	8,363	7,914	142	758
Making of scientific and musical instruments, clocks and watches, etc.....	122	2,225	1,646	230	-----	349
Other manufacturing industries.....	176	4,846	3,231	678	58	879

INDUSTRIAL CHANGES AFTER JAPANESE INVASION

The seaboard location of most of the Chinese factories made them particularly vulnerable to the Japanese invasion. The Chinese Government soon lost practically the whole of its richest industrial area.

Extraordinary efforts were made to move the factory equipment and personnel from the war areas to the interior and also to build new plants. By 1940, the Government reported that 116,000 tons of equipment and materials, with more than 12,000 skilled workers, had been transported to the interior and that 70 percent of the 639 refugee factories were in operation. Some 2,000 privately owned factories were then operating in Free China and by 1942 there were in addition 98 State-owned industrial plants. These figures do not include the so-called "industrial cooperatives," which formed one of the most interesting developments of the war (see page 39).

When the Japanese began their invasion of the coastal areas of China, hordes of refugees—industrial workers of all kinds, and their families—fled toward the interior of the country. The problem of caring for them and for the residents of the districts into which they fled was enormous. There were literally millions of unemployed needing work and a whole population needing goods of all kinds.

UNEMPLOYMENT

For many years prior to the present war unemployment was serious in China. Estimates ranged as high as 10 million or more as a normal situation, and a study by the China Branch of the International Labor Organization placed the number of unemployment in 12 Provinces and leading cities at 5,893,196 in 1935.

Seven main reasons for the growing unemployment were given by one writer,¹ as follows: Replacement of handicraft by machine work

¹ Present Labor Conditions in China, by T. K. Sheldon Tso. (In Monthly Labor Review, April 1928.)

rapid growth of population, lack of vocational education facilities to enable workers to acquire new skills, increase of seasonal trades, the civil wars (almost incessant since 1913) with resultant dislocation of industry and devastation of the land, unstable economic conditions that were worsened by foreign domination of trade, and the increasing number of strikes which gave employers a pretext for wholesale discharges.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

The National Government of China, in 1931 and 1935, enacted legislation and regulations providing for the establishment of public employment exchanges and for the conduct of private exchanges. Little information is available regarding the results accomplished under these provisions. In 1937 the International Labor Office reported that an employment bureau had been opened in Shanghai under the auspices of the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Greater Shanghai Municipal Government, and references were earlier made to the existence of employment offices in other communities.

The westward migration of large numbers of refugees after the Japanese invasion and the war need for a more-organized labor market led to the establishment of large numbers of employment agencies in Free China. According to the Chinese Year Book for 1943 there were, in 1942, 909 Government employment offices under the direction of the Ministry of Social Affairs, provincial social affairs agencies, party authorities, and institutes of people's education. In addition there were 4,023 private agencies established and managed by various civic and other organizations.

Labor recruiting.—Recruiting of workers through labor "masters" was the characteristic method of obtaining labor for the textile industry and, in many cases, also for other industries. These labor masters went into the country districts and engaged workers. The wages were paid to the labor masters, who deducted substantial amounts as fees.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions

HOURS OF LABOR

Long hours of labor are traditional in China. In the newer industrial establishments with power equipment and modern management methods the tendency was to speed up the tempo of work and reduce working hours. In these establishments there had been some movement toward the 8-hour day but this had not progressed very far. Otherwise the customary working hours in industry in pre-war China were from 9 to 10, with longer hours not uncommon. In the simpler workshops and trades, as in agriculture, working hours were frequently 12 and 14 per day, but the speed of work and accuracy of time keeping was much less than in the modern factories and mills.²

Under the National Government, established in Nanking in 1927, legislation has been enacted looking toward the general 8-hour day in industry, but conditions in China have not been favorable

² Wages and cost of living in various Chinese cities. (In Monthly Labor Review, January 1933.)

for putting such legislation into general effect. Indeed, after the beginning of the present war, the imperative need of maximum production in China, as in all warring countries, led to the extension of working hours wherever that was possible.

Rest days.—As there is nothing in China equivalent to Sunday, or any other periodic rest day, work tends to be continuous, except for special holidays. In recent years some establishments have provided for a definite number of rest days per month. The influence of Western ideas, especially through the International Labor Organization, has resulted in making labor more and more insistent on the principle of the seventh-day rest, and such a rest day has been favored by the Government.

PRE-WAR WAGE LEVELS

In very large part, wages and working conditions in industry were established by the employers, and a wide variety of wage systems prevailed—time work, piece work, payment in kind, etc. In the smaller handicraft shops much of the labor was performed under old apprenticeship systems and not on a wage basis.

Prior to the Japanese war, the prevailing wage rates for unskilled and semiskilled men in most lines of work ranged from 40 to 80 cents per day or from \$10 to \$20 per month. Skilled mechanics were paid much higher rates, owing to the scarcity of technically trained workers. The figures above cited are in Chinese currency. In the years immediately preceding the war the Chinese dollar was worth somewhat less than 50 cents in United States currency. Thus a monthly wage of 10 to 20 Chinese dollars would be equivalent to not more than \$5 to \$10 in United States money. The contrast with American wages is suggestive of the generally low wages of Chinese workers, but is by no means an accurate comparison as it does not take into consideration differences in prices in the two countries and, still more important, differences in consuming habits and living conditions generally.

Wages in the nonindustrialized sections of China were, on the whole, much lower than in the more modern factories in the coastal area. Hired farm laborers, who as earlier noted are not numerous, earned, on the average, about \$100 (Chinese) per year, plus board and room. Independent workers generally had lower earnings than factory workers, and this was also true of "coolie" labor. Women workers received usually from one-half to two-thirds the wage paid to men, and children a third to a half (or even less in many cases) of the men's rate.

Additions to wages.—The most important form of wage supplement was the traditional practice of an annual bonus at the New Year season. The bonuses were of very considerable importance, ranging from 1 month's pay to as much as a whole year's salary.

Overtime.—With the exception of the railroad and motortruck transportation and the printing industry, there is no record of industries in China paying extra for overtime. In the past, as already noted, normal hours were usually so long that overtime work was probably not a general problem but, with the development and enforcement of national legislation limiting hours of work, extra payment for time beyond scheduled hours will no doubt be a factor to be seriously considered.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIFFERENCES IN WAGES

Available data indicate rather wide variations in wage levels in different localities of China, although such data are not sufficiently comprehensive to be at all conclusive. Possibly the best information on this point is that contained in a study made by the Ministry of Industries in 1930.³ Table 2, reproduced from that study, shows the prevailing monthly wages in each of 12 cities, as well as working hours and number of rest days.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Wages and Daily Hours of Unskilled and Semiskilled Laborers in China, 1930, by City*

City	Number of workers	Average prevailing wages per month (in Chinese dollars)			Average prevailing hours per day	Average prevailing number of rest days per year
		Men	Women	Children		
Shanghai	362,894	15.28	12.50	8.07	11	33
Canton	239,365	10.62	7.50	16.00	9	36
Hankow	169,892	19.50	19.20	14.50	10	31
Wusih	70,688	20.00	17.10	10.50	10	24
Soochow	58,814	16.00	15.00	9.00	10	7
Tsingtao	26,428	15.00	15.00	10.00	12	62
Wuchang	23,974	18.00	12.93	8.46	12	46
Nanking	17,887	10.80	—	7.50	10	10
Fushan	17,855	12.50	6.00	3.75	10	10
Wuching	16,219	14.00	11.50	6.75	10	8
Hangchow	16,171	13.50	12.33	5.10	11	3
Foochow	16,032	18.00	12.00	8.00	10	15

¹ Does not include food supplied by employers.

WAGES BY INDUSTRIES

No satisfactory statistics giving wages by industry or occupation are available for China as a whole. However, special reports of varying completeness have been made for individual localities. Such reports are summarized below for the cities of Nanking and Shanghai and for Hankow district, the data relating to conditions shortly before the Japanese invasion.

Pre-war wages and hours in Nanking.—Statistics published by the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Nanking Municipal Government⁴ are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Wages in Various Industries in Nanking, 1935*

Industry	Monthly wages (in Chinese dollars) of—			Industry	Monthly wages (in Chinese dollars) of—		
	Men	Women	Children		Men	Women	Children
Bricks, glass, etc.	13.98	—	5.10	Leather, rubber, etc.	13.53	—	—
Chemicals, etc.	23.53	—	9.25	Machinery, etc.	19.40	—	8.84
Clocks, scientific instruments, etc.	19.60	—	—	Metal.	24.10	—	7.60
Food and beverages	15.58	—	—	Paper, etc.	11.43	—	—
Fuel	16.82	—	—	Printing	24.92	9.00	9.34
Furniture manufacture	35.33	—	—	Textiles	14.12	8.52	7.21
Gas, water, electricity	27.89	—	17.45	Wearing apparel	9.49	—	—
				Woodworking	23.91	—	—

³ Wages and cost of living in various Chinese cities. (In *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1933, p. 181.)
⁴ In *Industrial and Labor Information* (International Labor Office, Geneva), January 13, 1936, p. 32.

Pre-war wages and hours in Shanghai.—In a study of wage rates in Shanghai data were obtained on average hourly wage rates and average actual working hours in that city, for several important industries (table 4).⁵

TABLE 4.—Hourly Wage Rates and Hours Actually Worked Per Day in Shanghai, 1934

Industry	Both sexes		Males		Females	
	Average hourly rates (in Chinese dollars)	Average actual hours per day	Average hourly rates (in Chinese dollars)	Average actual hours per day	Average hourly rates (in Chinese dollars)	Average actual hours per day
Average, all industries.....	0.056	10.46	0.083	10.00	0.046	10.63
Machinery.....	.091	9.32	.091	9.32	-----	-----
Shipbuilding.....	.137	9.00	.137	9.00	-----	-----
Match making.....	.056	7.08	.116	5.64	.036	7.53
Enameling.....	.066	9.25	.066	9.27	.057	8.95
Silk reeling.....	.029	10.91	-----	-----	.029	10.91
Cotton spinning.....	.041	11.50	.046	11.50	.040	11.50
Silk weaving.....	.087	10.46	.106	10.61	.078	10.39
Cotton weaving.....	.054	11.34	.055	11.30	.054	11.34
Wool weaving.....	.058	11.07	.063	11.11	.054	11.05
Underwear knitting.....	.077	10.29	.078	10.32	.077	10.27
Hosiery knitting.....	.072	9.03	.071	9.26	.072	8.92
Flour.....	.048	11.50	.048	11.50	-----	-----
Oil pressing.....	.059	9.81	.059	9.81	-----	-----
Tobacco.....	.071	8.08	.078	10.00	.070	7.78
Paper making.....	.052	10.88	.064	11.05	.028	10.54
Printing.....	.116	8.55	.118	8.57	.063	8.26

Pre-war wages and hours in the Hankow district.—A report from the United States consular office for the Hankow consular district, in 1934, from which the following data are taken, noted that the economy of the area was still essentially agricultural. Industrialization was only beginning and was limited largely to Wuhan, Chengchow, and Changsha. Very low standards prevailed both in production and consumption which, combined with the actual pressure of population on the means of subsistence and the adverse effects of civil disorder, resulted in depressing the wage scales. There were no uniform standards of labor or wages even in the several cities; in the village and country districts the hours of labor tended to be longer and the pay smaller.

Agriculture: The farms averaged less than 5 American acres each and were generally cultivated by the family members. Hired help was therefore usually employed only on the larger holdings during the busy seasons of the year. This farm labor was hired on the basis of day wages, with no holiday, overtime, or other extra compensation. Lodging and food were not supplied. The daily wage for male farm workers ranged from 40 to 55 cents (Chinese), for females from 25 to 40 cents, and for children from 6 to 20 cents.

Building construction: The ordinary building construction on farms and in villages followed lines patterned after the agricultural village economy. Most of the work was done by individuals, with hours long and indefinite. In the larger cities, construction laborers tended to organize; they worked about 10 hours per day, the men receiving from 40 to 60 cents (Chinese), and the children from 10 to 20 cents.

⁵ A study of wage rates in Shanghai, 1930-34, by T. Y. Tsha. (Reprinted from the Nankai Social and Economic Quarterly, Tientsin, October 1935, pp. 459-510.)

Coal and metal mining: In the various branches of the mining industry an 11-hour day was general. Actual mining of coal was done usually on a small scale by the most primitive methods; there was little unionization in this industry. Labor organization had progressed somewhat farther in the mining of iron ore and of antimony. In the latter branch of the industry, because of its comparative prosperity, a better-than-average wage scale prevailed. The prevailing wage scales were as follows:

	<i>Daily wage (in Chinese cents)</i>
Coal miners	30-50
Iron miners	30-50
Antimony miners	50-80

Logging and lumbering: Lumbering was limited almost entirely to the cutting of poles for the use of the native population in constructing the ordinary thatched mud huts in which 75 percent of the population lived. Men received a daily wage of from 30 to 50 cents (Chinese) for an indefinite number of hours; women and children were not ordinarily employed.

Manufacturing: The major part of China's manufactures was produced by the village handicraft industries; only a few of the large cities had cotton or flour mills or other modern industries. Unionization was progressing in these industries, but control was kept in the hands of the authorities and the official Kuomintang organizations. In those industries where women and child labor predominated (as in cotton spinning and cigarette making), labor organization was especially ineffective. Wages were as follows:

	<i>Daily wage (in Chinese cents)</i>		<i>Daily wage (in Chinese cents)</i>
Cotton spinning, men	50-70	Oil processing, men	40-60
Cotton spinning, women	30-50	Tobacco industry, men	50-70
Cotton spinning, children	5-10	Tobacco industry, women	30-50
Flour mills, men	60-80	Tobacco industry, children	5-10

Printing and publishing: There was a marked difference in the wages paid in foreign-owned and in Chinese printing establishments in this area. Prevailing daily rates of pay ranged from 80 cents to \$1.20 (Chinese) in foreign establishments and from 40 to 60 cents in Chinese plants. The Chinese enterprises comprised the greater part of the industry. Adult male labor alone was used, and the 9-hour day was usual.

Railroad and motor transport: Railroad and motor-transport workers were probably the best organized of any industrial group in the area. The normal working day was 10 hours, and time and a half was paid for overtime. The workers were male, and their daily wage range from 50 to 80 cents (Chinese).

EFFECT OF THE WAR ON WAGES AND COST OF LIVING

One of the most disturbing factors in the Chinese economy since the war has been the increase in cost of living. This increase made itself felt almost immediately following the Japanese invasion. Actual figures are available only for two cities—Shanghai and Chungking. In Shanghai the cost of living index (1936=100) rose from 104 in 1936 to 124 in 1937, to 859 in 1941, and to over 4,000 in the latter part of 1942. In Chungking, the index (1937=100) rose to

549 in 1940, to 1,840 in 1941, and, as in Shanghai, to more than 4,000 in the latter part of 1942.

Wages, as usual in such circumstances, lagged well behind price increases. In Shanghai, by 1941, it was estimated that real wages (i. e., money wages adjusted to cost of living) were only 27 percent as high as they had been in 1936. In Chungking, the Ministry of Social Affairs estimated that the real wage in the latter part of 1942, including various wartime allowances, was about 84 percent of the January-June 1937 level. These wartime allowances included such items as rice and housing and in total represented a substantial addition to the workers' income.

After 1942, the cost-of-living index continued to soar and by the end of 1943 had reached 43,000. The situation as regards wages in this period is not known with any exactness, but in general it seems that money wages lagged still farther behind cost of living but in part were compensated by the types of allowances mentioned above.

After various limited attempts, wage regulation for the entire country was ordered by the Government on January 15, 1943. The regulations were aimed at the simultaneous stabilization of both wages and prices. Information is lacking as to the effects of these regulations.

WAGES AND HOURS IN JAPANESE-OCCUPIED TERRITORY

An indication of Chinese labor conditions in occupied China after the Japanese invasion can be gained from the following description of the cotton-spinning industry in Tsingtao in 1940, as reported by a Japanese source. The mills were working two 12-hour shifts in which females were replacing men. The work year averaged 334 to 336 days. Workers had a 30-minute recess once or twice daily and were entitled to a half day off duty 4 times a month (when they changed shifts). Those half-holidays could be so arranged as to enable the workers to take a day off during the New Year season and also during the New Year season on the lunar calendar, as well as on the birthday of the Emperor of Japan, and on 2 other Japanese and 3 Chinese national holidays.

The basic daily wage for a regular worker ranged between 0.30 yen (yen=50 cents under pre-war exchange rate) and 2.01 yen, to which was added a 10-percent allowance for high commodity prices. Some mills also paid a bonus of 3 yen a month to the operatives with good work-attendance records. Wages were paid once a month, after deductions had been made for shelter, food, coal, articles purchased, and fines.

The majority of the operatives were between 14 and 19 years of age. Most of these workers lived in dormitories built by the employers. Although some of the companies charged no rent for dormitory accommodations, others charged from 50 sen to 10.50 yen a month for a person or a family.

Certain mills had their own medical facilities and the others had part-time physicians. For the care of serious cases, all the companies depended on the city hospitals.

GENERAL TREND OF WAGES

Reliable data on the trend of wages in China are available only for Shanghai. Table 5 shows for that city, for each year from 1930 to 1941, the average daily wages of industrial workers and the index of "real wages" after adjustment to the cost-of-living index.

TABLE 5.—*Trend of Money Wages and "Real Wages" in Shanghai, 1930–41*¹

Year	Average earnings per day		Cost-of-living index for Shanghai ²	Index of "real wages" (1930 = 100)	Year	Average earnings per day		Cost-of-living index for Shanghai ²	Index of "real wages" (1930 = 100)
	Amount in Chinese dollars	Index (1930 = 100)				Amount in Chinese dollars	Index (1930 = 100)		
1930-----	0.669	100	100	100	1936-----	0.607	91	86	106
1931-----	.678	101	92	110	1937-----	.597	89	105	85
1932-----	.627	94	83	113	1938-----	.590	88	120	73
1933-----	.639	96	74	130	1939-----	.719	107	164	65
1934-----	.600	90	75	120	1940-----	1.423	211	396	53
1935-----	.572	86	77	112	1941-----	2.731	408	776	51

¹ Source: International Labor Office, Year Book of Labor Statistics, 1942 (pp. 108, 163).

² The Shanghai cost-of-living index is the only one in China that covers the period 1930–41. As before the Japanese invasion a large part of all modern Chinese industry was located in Shanghai, this index may be considered fairly representative.

ANNUAL EARNINGS AND INCOME

In China, as already noted, lack of regular work was a problem of utmost seriousness. On the other hand, the widespread employment of wives and children tended to make the annual income of the worker's family very much larger than the prevailing wage schedule would indicate.

An official study⁶ of the budgets of 305 families of Shanghai industrial workers in 1929–30 found that 53 percent of the average annual current income was from the husband's earnings, 34 percent came from the work of wife, children, and other family members, and the remaining 13 percent consisted of income from the subletting of rooms, gifts, peddling, etc.

The average annual income of these 305 families was \$416 in Chinese currency. In the period immediately before the Japanese invasion the exchange rate of the Chinese dollar was 50 cents or less in United States currency. However, to conclude from this that an income of \$416 in Chinese dollars in Shanghai was equivalent to only \$208 in American currency in the United States would be to disregard the price differences in the two countries and also differences in consuming habits. General price comparisons are impossible, partly because of lack of comprehensive data for China but primarily because so many of the items, especially food items, in the Chinese budget are not used at all in the United States. Such data as exist on this subject indicate that the prices of most of the goods and services purchased by Chinese workers are, on the whole (or at least were in the pre-war days) considerably lower than corresponding items in the United States, but the available information does not permit of comparisons of even approximate exactness.

⁶ Standard of Living of Shanghai Laborers (City Government of Greater Shanghai, Bureau of Social Affairs, Shanghai, 1934).

Living conditions in Shanghai.—Competent observers and students, both foreign and native, agree that the living conditions of the great mass of the workers in China are bad both in comparison with Western countries and when compared with generally accepted health standards. However, because of the differences in consuming habits noted above, it is extremely difficult to measure and express the degrees of "badness" in statistical terms. Nevertheless, studies of family living conditions have been made in a few Chinese communities, and these, especially the study for Shanghai above referred to, do furnish significant information.

The Shanghai study of 1929-30 found that current expenditures regularly exceeded current income for the majority of the workers' families, food was generally inadequate for proper nutrition, extreme overcrowding and extremely unsanitary housing were the rule, and the opportunities for the proper care and education of children were very meager.

The 305 families studied averaged 5 members per family, and had incomes ranging from some \$240 (Chinese) to more than \$700 per year. The average "current" income (i. e., excluding borrowings, gifts, etc.) was \$416.

The most striking fact about these families was that the great majority showed large deficits at the year's end, and that this condition obtained among higher-income families almost as frequently as among those with lower incomes. The average deficiency of current expenditures as compared with current income was \$38; and the deficiency in current expenditures as compared with wage income was \$90, or about 25 percent of the wage receipts of all working members of the family.

These deficits were met by borrowing and, as in very many cases this practice tended to persist from year to year, this meant that new debts were constantly contracted to pay off old debts, at extremely high rates of interest. The loans from professional money lenders were so arranged that the interest was concealed but was often as high as 120 percent per year, while the interest rate charged by pawn shops on less-valuable articles was usually 24 percent per annum.

Food expenditures accounted for 57.4 percent of the total current family income, as against about 33 percent in the United States. Moreover, half the total food expenditure was for cereals, mostly rice. Use of milk and milk products was practically unknown, and the proportion of fats was extremely low. The amount of proteins barely met the physiological minimum requirements; that of fats was clearly insufficient; and the proportion of carbohydrates was too high. The diet was deficient in calcium and phosphorus as well as in certain very important vitamins.

Overcrowding was acute, the average number of rooms per family being only 1.65, and the number of "equivalent" adults per room averaging 2.33. Almost half of the families surveyed lived in a single room. The houses were, for the most part, of very simple construction; a fourth of them had mud floors. The window area was very small, and about a fifth of the houses had no windows at all. Water for drinking and cooking purposes was bought mostly from hot-water shops; water for washing and cleaning purposes came from taps, wells, and, in many cases, from nearby creeks. Indoor toilet facilities were as a rule entirely lacking.

Clothing was made largely at home, from purchased piece goods of the cheapest grades.

Only seven of the families covered had made any savings during the year, the average for these seven being \$7.14. Life insurance was being carried by only one family. Almost nothing (\$1.45) was spent on education per year. Only 16 families had any expenses for newspapers and none had regular subscriptions. Sixty percent of the family heads had had less than a year's schooling.

Comparison with other cities and post-war conditions.—Scattered reports from other localities indicate that conditions in other industrial communities were rarely better and often worse. For instance, a Peiping survey showed housing conditions much worse than in Shanghai. On the other hand, one study indicated that when industrial establishments were so located that members of farm families were employed while still living at their farm homes, there was a definite improvement in living standards.⁷

Although the Shanghai report related to 1929–30, such evidence as exists indicates that up to the Japanese invasion in 1937 no improvement had taken place in the general living conditions of the workers; indeed, between 1930 and 1937 there was a decline of about 7 percent in the general wage level in Shanghai, without any corresponding decline in cost of living. After 1937, prices literally skyrocketed all over China, with wage increases in most cases lagging far behind. No satisfactory figures are available by which to measure at all accurately the effects of these changes on the living status of the workers for any considerable part of China. However, a report from Chungking earlier referred to, is suggestive. This report estimates that between the first half of 1937 and March 1943 the real wages of factory workers (i. e., money wages adjusted to cost of living) declined about one-half, whereas the real wages of certain skilled crafts—carpenters and masons—showed little or no change or actual increases.

Labor Legislation and Labor Policies

PRE-WAR LABOR LAWS

Labor legislation was slow in developing in China. This was due in part to the fact that modern industrialization, which in all countries has led to the enactment of protective labor laws, is of such recent development. Perhaps even more important is the fact that the idea of intervention by the governing authorities for the reform of social customs was foreign to traditional Chinese concepts of government. The growing importance of large-scale industries and the increasing disruption of the traditional relationships of employer and employee was accompanied by labor's demands for protective laws.

Almost as soon as the Republican Government was established, in 1927, it promulgated a series of labor laws including the comprehensive Factory Law of 1929. That law prohibited labor by children under 14 years of age and woman and child labor in dangerous or improper employment or during specified hours at night or in the early morning. It established, with certain exceptions, an 8-hour day for adults and provided for rest periods and holidays, minimum wages based upon local standards of living, equal pay for men and women for equal work,

⁷ Monthly Labor Review, April 1932 (p. 801).¹

regulations regarding the termination of contracts, including leave of absence to workers to seek new employment, a dismissal wage, and health and safety measures. Under the act employers were required to furnish educational facilities for child workers, apprentices, and other employees, and promote, as far as possible, proper amusements for their labor forces and aid them to save money and to belong to cooperative societies. Provision was made, too, for profit sharing. Pending the enforcement of social-insurance laws for workers disabled by accident or disease or who die in the performance of their duty, the factory was to meet the medical expenses of such workers and pay pensions to them or their survivors. One of the chapters of the law dealt with the selection, functions, and operation of factory councils upon which employers and workers were to have an equal number of representatives.

The Labor-Union Law of 1929 also deserves notice. Under the provisions of this law male and female workers of the same trade or occupation might organize a union to increase their knowledge, skill, or productive power or to improve and maintain their standard of living. (Government employees, employees of public utilities, and members of the army and navy, however, were not allowed to organize unions). No strike was permitted until the dispute had been referred to arbitration. If arbitration failed, the workers concerned could declare a strike if two-thirds of those present at a mass meeting voted by secret ballot in favor of striking. The law also prohibited an employer from dismissing a worker on account of union membership.

In addition, the Government, in the early 1930's, ratified several of the conventions of the International Labor Organization, including No. 14 which required one rest day per week for industrial workers, and No. 26 which provided for the creation of machinery for setting minimum wages.

Problem of enforcement.—Following the enactment of the labor laws and the approval of the labor conventions mentioned above, serious problems of enforcement immediately arose. In the first place the legislation was rather far in advance of general practices, and required educational work before the provisions could be introduced.

Also, no administrative machinery existed for the enforcement of these standards, and the period following their enactment had to be devoted to the training of factory inspectors. In July 1933 a central factory inspection bureau was created, with three sections, dealing respectively with general and business affairs, health, and factory inspection. It was authorized to open branch offices throughout China, as conditions demanded. The bureau required that all inspectors appointed by Provincial and municipal authorities work under its supervision and that they be graduates of the training institute of the Ministry of Industries. During 1934 the Central Factory Inspection Bureau prepared a number of films regarding factory safety and sanitation for propaganda work, pushed the organization of factory safety and health committees in various cities and Provinces for which a set of 10 regulations has been issued by the Ministry of Industries, compiled and published a handbook for factory inspectors, and made preliminary investigations about factory safety and sanitary conditions in the various cities and Provinces.

The Japanese invasion in 1937 interrupted the Government's plans for the enforcement of the factory law, especially as the Japanese con-

quests very soon included the most important industrial centers of the country. However, the factory law was not forgotten, and in 1941 the training of a group of college graduates as factory inspectors was undertaken by the Chungking Government. In February 1942 these inspectors began work in the Chungking area, and it was stated that such service would be extended to the whole nation as personnel became available.

A third difficulty in the enforcement of the labor law lay in the principle of "extraterritoriality." That principle had been interpreted by foreign factories in China as, in general, exempting their factories from Chinese labor legislation and regulations. This presented a most serious difficulty to enforcement, as so many of the large-scale factories were foreign-owned. The surrender of "extraterritoriality," after the present war, will greatly simplify China's problems of law enforcement.

WARTIME LABOR POLICIES

Conditions following the Japanese invasion have naturally been unfavorable to the inauguration of new activities in the interest of labor. In general, the policy of the Government of China has been in the direction of labor control for war purposes. The National General Mobilization Act gives the Government quite full control over the recruitment, distribution, and remuneration of all citizens, besides authorizing it to prevent all strikes and lockouts.

On the other hand, continued interest has been displayed in the improvement of labor conditions in the future. A National Social Administrative Conference in October 1942—the first of its kind ever held in China and representative of many groups—adopted a draft of a national labor policy, which was then sent to the Supreme National Defense Council for approval. The proposals contained in this draft have a very wide range, including such items as improved labor efficiency through scientific management and a general program of social insurance.

Welfare work.—The Ministry of Social Affairs is also directing and supervising factories in undertaking matters regarding labor welfare. In March 1942, the Ministry ordered the four largest cotton mills in Chungking to allocate a portion of the profits they made in 1941, for the promotion of labor welfare, and numerous welfare projects were started. A special commissioner was sent to the Kansu Oil Mining Bureau to direct and supervise welfare work. A special committee was formed to look after the welfare of the workers in the Yunnan tin mines.

The Ministry started several laborers' welfare societies in Chungking to serve as models for provincial and municipal authorities. These projects included workers' dormitories, barber shops, laundry houses, recreational centers, schools for workers and their families, reading rooms, and guidance and advice on vocational, legal, and medical matters.

Regulations Governing Employees' and Workers' Welfare Funds, issued by the National Government on January 26, 1942, set forth the method of financing such funds, as follows: (1) 1-5 percent of the company's total capital (at the time of starting the welfare fund), (2)

monthly employer contributions of 2-5 percent of the total amount of salaries, wages, and allowances paid to employees, (3) monthly employee contributions of one-half of 1 percent of the salary, wages, and allowances, (4) 5-10 percent of the yearly profits; and (5) 20-40 percent of any money realized by the company through the sale of scraps. For workers not hired by any particular employer, the labor unions concerned are to appropriate 30 percent from the total membership fee. The law imposes fines for noncompliance.

ADMINISTRATION OF LABOR LAWS AND REGULATIONS

The highest administrative organ of social affairs in China, including labor affairs, is the Ministry of Social Affairs. A special labor bureau in the Ministry was created for the mobilization of manpower as required in the National General Mobilization Act. Prior to the establishment of the Republican Government in 1927 there was no special government agency for dealing with labor matters. At that time a Labor Bureau was created with broad duties of administering the labor laws and regulations, proposing new laws, and in general working toward the improvement of the employment conditions and general welfare of the working population. The duties of the bureau, with considerable expansion, are now merged in the present Ministry of Social Affairs.

Since the beginning of the war a Provincial department of social affairs has been formed in each Province, and at least 200 municipal governments are reported to have established special divisions in charge of social administration.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

The first strikes in China occurred in 1913, but did not result in unionization, partly because the Chinese employers affected tended to compromise with their workers and partly because the idea of labor organization was undeveloped. About 1917, labor newspapers and other publications began to appear in the big cities and became quite influential. The continued influx of foreign capital, under the inducement of big profits, aroused a nationalist feeling, and the Chinese laboring classes, awokened by students and press, became more and more articulate.

The organization of labor in China, in the modern sense, began just after the first World War. From the Armistice to 1921, approximately 200,000 factory workers were organized into various unions in different cities. Of all the workers these were the most successful in their efforts to secure higher wages and better working conditions, and their unions were the most efficiently conducted of all the labor organizations then in China. Next in numerical strength were the miners and railway men, numbering 185,000. The agricultural workers, always more conservative than craftsmen, were the least organized. In some industries of the interior cities, where handicraft conditions still existed, the workers were satisfied with the old guild system for the regulation of wages, output, prices, and hours of labor.

The trade-union movement spread quite rapidly, especially in the southern Provinces, had various ups and downs as a result of the many civil and military disturbances, was at times identified rather closely

with political movements, and experienced varying degrees of regulation by governmental authorities.

The stringent wartime control measures brought the labor unions under very strict regulations, and, although making membership in unions compulsory when feasible, gave the administrative authorities close supervision over their conduct. On the whole, the present National Government is regarded as being very favorable to labor unionism, and its program contemplates labor organization as a vital part of the country's future economic structure.

According to official reports of the Ministry of Social Affairs, China had 4,027 registered unions, with a total membership of 1,053,656 at the end of 1942, as compared with 872 registered unions and a membership of 743,764 before the war. As the working population normally eligible for union membership was estimated as being about 3,000,000, the 1942 registered membership of 1,053,656 was regarded as being quite high, when regard is had to the disturbed conditions in the country and to the fact that so many of the older industrial districts were under Japanese control. As regards the type of union structure, the report for 1942 designated 3,492 unions as craft and 129 as industrial unions; there were 122 "special" unions, of which 6 railway and 13 seamen's unions were of particular importance. However, the old-fashioned guild system still exerts considerable influence and controls members by methods similar to those of the guilds in Europe during the Middle Ages.

Trend toward federation.—Among the unions registered with the Ministry of Social Affairs is the Chinese Seamen's Union, with headquarters in Chungking and 12 branch unions, 154 sub-branch unions, and 437 small units, with a total membership of 37,767.

Another organization is the Chinese Association of Labor, composed of 52 group members and 225 members, totaling more than 350,000 persons. It acts unofficially as the national organization for workers, as a National Labor Union is not yet established.

Factors affecting strength of unionism.—It is difficult to appraise the extent to which labor unions in China were "free" in the Western sense prior to the war. Legally, the right of free association was guaranteed under the trade-union laws; and the right to strike, with certain limitations, was granted by law. However, the exercise of these rights depended in considerable part upon the political conditions in different sections of the country, for in this as in many other respects, China was not an integrated unit.

Also, labor unionism in China, being quite new, had not established itself in the lives of the workers as it has in most of the older industrial countries of the West. Extensive illiteracy was a stumbling block to strong organization, as was also the absence of trained leaders. Undoubtedly the effect of the war has been and will be to strengthen the forces making for cohesion among workers, and to widen the social consciousness of the people generally.

Industrial Relations

With the development of trade-unionism in China came an increasing tendency toward the establishment of wages and working conditions through collective bargaining between employers and employees. However, there is no information as to the extent of these practices and no record of formal collective agreements.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Since the outbreak of the present war there have been few industrial disputes in Free China, and in the occupied areas the Japanese have ruthlessly suppressed any indication of discontent.

Before the war, industrial disputes in China were very frequent and quite serious, considering that modern industry and labor organization were of such recent development. Thus, in the year 1925 there were in China, not including the great Shanghai strike, at least 185 strikes, involving some 403,000 persons⁸ and, including the Shanghai strike, involving at least 780,000 persons. In the same year in the United States, with several times the industrial population of China, there were 1,301 strikes and only about 428,000 workers involved. In 1934, there were in China at least 141 strikes with more than 350,000 workers involved, as against 1,856 strikes with 1,466,000 workers involved in the United States.

Although the great majority of strikes in China had an economic basis, there was also considerable use of the strike for political reasons and even in antiforeign demonstrations.

Strikes in 1935, their causes and results.—The most recent year for which strike statistics are available is 1935, the data having been compiled by the China Branch of the International Labor Office. According to this report there were, in 1935, 300 industrial disputes of which 141 resulted in strikes.⁹ Of these, 99 cases occurred in factories. The number of workers involved was reported for only about half the strikes, the total number of such workers being 177,000. If the same rates held for the other half of the strikes, the total number of persons involved would be about 350,000. On the average each strike involved 2,600 workers and the average duration was slightly less than 8 days.

The causes of the 81 strikes for which cause was reported, were as shown below. The year 1935 was one of considerable industrial depression, and this is reflected in the fact that the strikes were used largely to prevent the lowering of existing standards.

	Strikes	Percent
Disputes over wages	56	100.0
Against reduction of wages	27	48.2
Against defaults on wages and guaranty fees	14	25.0
For increase of wages	7	12.5
For wage advancement	1	1.8
Against abolishment of extra wages	1	1.8
Unknown	6	10.7
Disputes over employment	25	100.0
Against change of employment	16	64.0
For reinstatement	2	8.0
Against partial employment	3	12.0
Against employment system	3	12.0
Other	1	4.0

The workers were either wholly or partially successful in more than half of the strikes for which this information is available.

For 72 strikes for which data on method of settlement was reported, 15 were settled by direct negotiation between the parties, 8 by the mediation of a third party, 22 through a conciliation or

⁸ All strike figures for China are recognized as being probably serious underestimates, owing to the difficulty of collecting such data in that country.

⁹ Lockouts are not separately tabulated.

arbitration committee, and 27 through the good offices of other organizations; 69 disputes either remained unsettled or the method of settlement was not reported.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

Although conciliation and arbitration of industrial disputes by both public and private agencies are established practices in China and have been formally incorporated into law, there is no record of cases handled, other than those just cited.

The National Law on Industrial Disputes, originally enacted in 1929 and amended as late as May 31, 1943, is very comprehensive. It applies to disputes affecting 15 or more workers, except those in Government-operated establishments, and provides for a series of conciliation and arbitration boards for the handling of controversies. Administration is placed largely upon the Provincial and municipal authorities, but upon the Ministry of Social Affairs if the dispute extends beyond the boundaries of a single Province. The law is not entirely clear as to the extent to which the arbitration machinery must be invoked, but the ultimate right to strike seems to be recognized.

Cooperative Movement

The cooperative movement in China, from its beginning in 1919 until the Japanese invasion, had a comparatively slow development. Such growth as occurred was due largely to the activities of the China International Famine Relief Commission, the Kuomintang, the Central and Provincial Governments, and the Chinese industrial cooperatives movement.

In 1935, there were 26,224 cooperative associations reported as operating in China, of which about 60 percent were credit associations, mostly serving the rural areas. At that time there were no consumers' cooperatives. However, as a result of war conditions, consumers' cooperatives had a widespread development. In 1942, there were 111,697 cooperative associations (with a membership of 6,355,786), distributed by type, as follows:¹⁰

	Cooperative associations		Cooperative associations
All types	111,697	Utility	380
Credit	<u>92,134</u>	Consumers'	2,570
Production:		Supply	669
Agricultural	7,841	Transportation and market-	2,128
Industrial	<u>5,967</u>	ing	8
		Insurance	

COOPERATIVES AFTER THE JAPANESE INVASION

Conditions attending the Japanese invasion greatly stimulated the cooperative movement, particularly the formation of workers' productive associations or industrial cooperatives. With the Japanese occupying the industrial center of China, and with the great westward migration of the Chinese people, the Government of China in 1938 began to establish industrial cooperatives in an attempt to reorganize the economic life of the country.

¹⁰ Chinese Year Book, 1943 (p. 628).

In 1940, the Cooperative League of China was formed to coordinate the various branches of the movement. By 1942, it had branches in 10 Provinces.

Industrial cooperatives.—To provide supplies for the army and civilian population and to provide employment for the refugees in unoccupied China, the Chinese industrial cooperative (C. I. C.) movement was started in 1938. By 1940, there were approximately 2,300 small, decentralized, industrial units, requiring a minimum of capital and equipment. These miniature factories were in 16 Provinces, and were under the leadership of an international committee in Chengtu with 70 branch headquarters.

These workers' productive associations include weaving, spinning, knitting, printing, and transport units; flour mills; paper mills; machine shops; glass factories; coal, iron and gold mines; leather tanneries; sugar and oil refineries; and chemical plants. The factories produce medical supplies, uniforms, hand grenades, electrical equipment, wagons, tents, stretchers, and other supplies for the army. Schools have been established to train accountants, organizers, and technicians.

The capital on which these industrial cooperatives function is extremely small in terms of United States currency, and the question of capital had become of paramount importance by 1944. It was estimated by cooperative leaders that, because of insufficient working capital, nearly half of their enterprises were forced periodically to suspend production until enough goods had been sold to provide funds for the purchase of additional materials. With prices rapidly increasing, the revenue from sales was often insufficient to pay for enough raw materials to replace the goods sold.

In 1942, these industrial cooperatives numbered 1,590 and had 22,680 members; the number of auxiliary workers employed by the associations is not known, but was very much larger than the number of members. Table 6 indicates the industrial cooperatives, by industry, and the number of members in each industry.

TABLE 6.—*Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, by Industry and Number of Members, June 30, 1942*¹

Industry	Associations		Number of members
	Number	Percent	
All industries.....	1,590	100.0	22,680
Machine and metal works.....	57	3.6	1,011
Mining.....	111	7.1	972
Textiles.....	584	36.7	10,449
Tailoring.....	159	10.0	1,718
Chemicals.....	322	20.2	4,494
Foodstuffs.....	70	4.4	707
Stationery supplies.....	43	2.7	749
Carpentry and masonry.....	106	6.7	1,090
Transportation.....	7	.4	67
Miscellaneous.....	131	8.2	1,423

¹ Data are from A Nation Rebuilds (Indusco, 1943).

Rural cooperatives.—The Central Cooperative Administration of the Ministry of Social Welfare stated that in Free China there were, at the end of 1941, 107,904 rural cooperatives, with a total member-

ship of 5,079,212. If the Japanese-penetrated areas had been included, the total rural cooperatives would have amounted to 116,199 associations, with 5,998,476 members. This was a considerable advance over 1937, when there were 46,983 such associations, with 2,139,634 members.

These associations were promoted by the various Provincial governments and had no connection with the Chinese industrial cooperatives. The rural cooperatives concentrated all their efforts on furthering agricultural production, marketing their members' farm products, and carrying on other activities to assist the farming population. The types of rural cooperatives in 1941 and the number of each type are as follows:¹¹

	Number		Number
Credit	92,515	Consumers'	1,788
Supply	568	Utility	350
Production	10,321	Insurance	6
Marketing	2,134	Miscellaneous	222

Social Insurance

As already noted, the Factory Law of 1929 provided that factories should compensate workers for industrial accidents and diseases, according to a prescribed schedule of benefits. However, it does not appear that this requirement was ever put into effect.

The Chinese Ministry of Information reported that a Government system of accident and health insurance was to be instituted in 1943, to be followed later by old-age and unemployment insurance. No information is available regarding actual operations under these proposals, except a report that insurance measures had been applied to salt workers in one district.

¹¹ State Department No. 84 (Chungking, July 25, 1941).

Wartime Policies

“Basic Steel” Decision of National War Labor Board¹

THE National War Labor Board, on November 25, 1944, rendered its decision on each of the 14 points at issue in the dispute involving 86 “basic steel” companies and approximately 400,000 employees. The decisions on points affecting wages could not come into effect until ruled upon by the Director of Economic Stabilization, after determination by the Office of Price Administration that they would not necessitate raises in price ceilings. Such determination was made late in December, and on December 30 the Director approved the War Labor Board’s wage increases.

The major points of the National War Labor Board’s decision on each of the issues involved in the “basic steel” dispute follow.²

Decisions Relating to Wages

Regarding the general wage adjustment of 17 cents an hour, requested by the employees and rejected by the Board on October 11, 1944, the Board stated: “This denial is without prejudice to resumption by the Board of its consideration of the demand for a general wage increase and of the procedure that might then be appropriate if there is any change in the national wage-stabilization policy.”

On the subject of a guaranteed annual wage, the Board stated that it was not prepared to impose such a demand by order. On the other hand, the Board said that it was recommending to the President a comprehensive study on a national scale by a presidential commission.

Wage-rate establishment and adjustment.—The Board denied the employees’ request for approval of “equal pay for similar work throughout the industry” as a guiding principle in elimination of wage-rate inequities through collective bargaining with the individual companies. However, the Board held that individual companies and the union are to negotiate the elimination of intraplant wage-rate inequities and develop well-balanced job-classification schedules. As guide posts for this procedure, the Board listed five points:

(1) The extent of wage adjustments required to eliminate intraplant wage-rate inequities will vary from company to company. The record indicates that little or no increase to eliminate such inequities will be needed in some plants where wage rates are now in a sound relationship. The largest increases in pay-roll costs may be expected in plants where little or nothing has been done in the past to correct wage-rate inequities.

¹ National War Labor Board, Press release B-1851, November 25, 1944; National War Labor Board, Directive Order, Case No. 111-6230-D, November 25, 1944.

² On December 11, 1944, 73 of the steel companies involved petitioned the Board for reconsideration of its decision; the petition was denied by the Board on December 13.

(2) The maximum increase for any one company is not to exceed an amount equivalent to an average of 5 cents per hour for all its employees covered by this directive order.

(3) Any wage-rate adjustments made are to be solely for the purpose of eliminating intraplant wage-rate inequities. They cannot be general across-the-board wage increases, and any such general increases will be disapproved.

(4) As an aid to determining the correct rate relationship among the jobs in the particular plant, the company and the union may take into account the wage-rate relationships existing in comparable plants in the industry. The contention that such relationships in other plants in the industry have no significance for this purpose is rejected.

(5) The reduction of an out-of-line wage rate shall not operate to reduce the wages of present incumbents.

The above provisions also apply to mechanical and maintenance employees, and the number of classifications for each of these categories is to be reduced to three whenever practical.

Any agreement reached between a company and union regarding elimination of inequalities is to be transmitted to a commission that the Board will establish. The changes are not to become effective until approved by the commission. If the parties cannot reach an agreement, the dispute on this issue is to be referred to the commission for determination.

Shift differentials.—The Board ordered that a premium of 4 cents an hour be paid for the second shift and of 6 cents an hour for the third shift. The union's request for the elimination of the geographical wage differential was denied, but the Board said that this denial should not be construed to prevent the correction of the intraplant wage-rate inequalities covered above.

Vacations, Holidays, and Sick Leave

In line with its general policy, the Board granted 1 week's vacation with pay after 1 year's service and 2 weeks' vacation with pay after service of 5 years or more; with this exception, the eligibility requirements of the previous collective agreement are to prevail, unless modified by agreement of the companies and union.

The following days are considered as holidays: Thanksgiving Day, January 1, July 4, Labor Day, Christmas Day, and Memorial Day. By local agreement, another day may be substituted for Memorial Day. Employees required to work on these days are to be paid time and a half for all hours worked. For the purpose of determining whether an employee has worked 6 days in his regularly scheduled workweek, holidays are to be considered as days worked, whether worked or not, and regardless of whether they are scheduled as days of work or of rest.

The Board will approve "reasonable sick-leave plans agreed to by the company and the union," but it declined to order such leave.

Severance Pay, and Fund for Steel Workers in Armed Forces

The Board approved the principle of severance pay; such pay, however, should be limited to employees with a certain seniority, and employees with longer service should be entitled to a larger severance pay, particular regard being given to the regular working force

rather than to employees who have entered the industry for temporary war service only. However, the employers and employees are to develop by collective bargaining appropriate provisions for the payment of dismissal allowances. The Board stated that it will approve, under the wage-stabilization program, reasonable provisions for such payments mutually agreed upon.

The Board denied the employees' request for the establishment of a fund for steel workers in the armed forces. The fund was to have been constituted by a contribution (to be ordered by the Board) of \$20 from each employee benefiting by any wage increase directed by the Board, and a matching contribution from the employing steel company. The Board stated that such a fund might be arranged by voluntary agreement.

Other Issues

Regarding maintenance-of-membership and check-off provisions, the Board not only denied the demand of some of the companies for the elimination of such provisions from the present agreement between the steel companies and the union, but ordered the incorporation or continuance of the standard voluntary maintenance-of-membership and check-off clauses.

The union's request that learners shall receive no less than the common-labor rate of pay was denied by the Board. The latter, however, stated that if a learner alleges he is improperly classified, his grievance is to be handled under the grievance provisions of the agreement.

Finally, with respect to group insurance, the War Labor Board stated that it will approve under the wage-stabilization program "reasonable group-insurance plans agreed to by the company and the union," but declined to order the inauguration of such a program.



Interim Reallocation of British Civilian Manpower

TO AVOID the risk of serious dislocation and to insure the production of necessities rather than luxuries in a period when manpower requirements will substantially exceed total resources, the British Government has outlined in a White Paper (Cmd. 6568) plans for reallocating persons engaged in civil employment, during the interval that may occur between the end of hostilities with Germany and the defeat of Japan.¹ In this period workers will become available from the armed forces and civil defense and also from the munitions industries, but substantial numbers will want to leave industry to go home, or to leave war jobs for other employment. It is the Government's aim to fulfill these workers' desires as far as is consistent with the national interest. Addressing the House of Commons regarding the White Paper, the Prime Minister, on November 16, 1944, stated that the war must have first call on the country's efforts. He added that after Germany's defeat it will be possible and necessary to turn over an increasing part of the nation's resources to civilian production,

¹ Great Britain, Ministry of Labor and National Service, *Reallocation of Manpower Between Civilian Employments During any Interim Period Between the Defeat of Germany and the Defeat of Japan*, London, 1944 (Cmd. 6568); Parliament, House of Commons, Debates, November 16, 1944; and British Information Services, New York, 1944 (I. D. 570).

trying at the same time to restore exports and to re-equip industry. The shortage of houses must be dealt with as a wartime measure and active steps must be taken to relieve the civilian-goods shortage.

Principles Governing Persons in Civilian Employment

Certain groups of persons are to be given permission to leave their jobs and to retire from industry immediately after the war in Europe ends, irrespective of the production on which they are engaged. They are scheduled as "class K," and consist of (1) women (married or single) with household responsibilities and women wishing to join their husbands on their release from the forces, (2) other women over the age of 60 years, and (3) men over age 65. In addition, women over 50 will, on application, be given permission to leave their jobs and to retire, unless production reasons are compelling. Members of class K who do not want to retire but who wish to work nearer home will be given priority in release for such work—unless strong production reasons make it inexpedient.

In establishments having a labor surplus, priority in discharge is to be as follows: (1) Persons wanted for the call-up for the armed forces (i. e., men aged 18 to 27 years); and (2) persons needed for transfer to other employment to fill priority vacancies, who have worked away from home for less than 3 years but more than 1 year, or who are released in accordance with current practice (such as under collective agreement).

The foregoing are subject to periodic review and are to be extended or modified as the situation requires. Transfers to priority vacancies are to be made according to the regular procedure, including consultation with employers and workers. Effort will be directed toward transferring as many persons as possible back to their homes.

Some labor will be needed in industries, to increase or maintain working forces after appropriate releases have been made. Some employees, even though their services are not redundant where they are employed, may be transferred to jobs in which the need for labor is greater.

Registration of young men and women for employment or national service will be continued. Women will not be called up for the armed services, but may volunteer. To relieve older women war workers, young women will be required to obtain or continue employment. Persons are to be sent away from home only if no other method is found for providing the required manpower.

Principles Governing Release From Armed Forces

The practices to be followed in release of persons from the armed forces will differ, depending upon whether they are in class A (and accordingly will be released in their turn), or in class B (and will be transferred to perform urgent reconstruction work).² Persons in class A will not be subject to labor controls during paid leave from the services following release, but thereafter they may be directed to work (like other persons), if they have not found employment. Class B transferees are to be released under direction to work. They may be permitted to move between reconstruction employments, but if

² For a summary of the partial-demobilization plan see *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1944 (p. 973).

the
Per
pla
app

the
and
Min
per
be
Eng
men
the
wan
wom
atio
Con
eng
Ess
mer
sing
won

Ter

N
Aus
pay
be s
izing
stat
ratio
ava
resta
tion
ever
righ
rule
lay-
the
for
glas

T
No
the
Secu
liabi

1 Da
Septem

they take other types of jobs will be called back into the services. Persons released from civil-defense assignments will be available for placement according to current priorities and subject to the rules applying to other workers.

Interim Labor Controls

Compulsion is to be kept within the strictest possible limits during the period between completion of military operations in the European and the Pacific areas. Use of Defense Regulation 58A (whereby the Minister of Labor and National Service is empowered to direct any person to any job in the United Kingdom at the rate for the job), will be retained in the background, but to a great extent the Control of Engagement Order is to be used in its place. Although the Government considers that the Essential Work Orders must be maintained, these orders may not necessarily apply to the same industries as in wartime, and must be administered to permit resignations of married women and retirement of older men and women. Similar considerations are to be observed in the retention and administration of the Control of Employment (Directed Persons) Order. Control of engagement has been accomplished in different ways—that is, under Essential-Work and Control-of-Engagement Orders—but the Government foresees the possibility of control in the interim period under a single order covering men between the ages of 18 and 50 years and women between 18 and 40.



Temporary Lay-Offs to Conserve Fuel in New South Wales¹.

NUMEROUS wage awards covering employees in New South Wales, Australia, were modified in September 1944 to exempt employers from paying wages to workers for any period during which work could not be supplied, owing to the rationing and shortage of fuel. In authorizing such lay-offs, the New South Wales Industrial Commission stated that the decision of the Commonwealth Coal Commissioner to ration coal had reduced the volume of power and therefore the work available to employees in a number of industries. Subject to the restrictions imposed under the terms of applicable manpower regulations, employers would ordinarily dismiss surplus employees. However, since such action would be prejudicial to the employees' benefit rights (including annual leave and sick pay), the Commission ruled that the employee should lose his pay but that the period of lay-off should not be deemed to be an interruption of service under the award covering his employment. Workers in varied pursuits—for example, in the manufacture of barbed wire, bricks, chemicals, glass, pottery, soap, and sugar—were affected by the decision.

The order reads as follows:

Notwithstanding anything expressed or implied in any award mentioned in the schedule hereto, but subject to the provisions of regulation 14 of the National Security (Manpower) Regulations where it applies, an employer is excepted from liability to pay for any period in which—

¹ Data are from the Employers' Review (Employers' Federation of New South Wales, Sydney), September 30, 1944.

- (i) by reason of (a) shortage or failure of coal or coke supplies or shortage or failure of heat, power or light due to failure or shortage of coal or coke supplies; or (b) action taken by the employer to comply with the requests or requirements in relation to coal, coke, heat, power or light of any Government, Minister or duly constituted authority, the employee has not performed his usual duties, and
(ii) reasonably [sic] other work has not been found for the employee. Provided that (a) any employee who is required to attend for work on any day and who is worked and paid pursuant to this order shall be paid at least 4 hours' pay in respect of each start, and (b) an employee who is subject to intermittency under this order shall be treated for the purpose of the award as having continuity of service, and (c) no employee shall be deemed to be a casual employee by reason only of being given intermittent work under this order.

12-Year Minimum Age for Labor Conscription in Japan

THE minimum age for conscription of both male and female labor in Japan became 12 years, in November 1944, after the adoption of legislation covering female workers. For males the upper age limit is 60 years and for females 40 years. Compulsory service of females is restricted to unmarried women. According to the Office of War Information¹ the Japanese Government decided to intensify the labor conscription of women under existing law, by ordering their mobilization for work in "community plants" on the same basis as male employees. Registration of all males between the ages of 12 and 60 years and of all females between the ages of 12 and 40 years preceded adoption of the general conscription policy.

¹ Foreign News Bureau, Items from Wire File, OWI-60, November 9, 1944, and OWI-16, September 7, 1944.

Social Security

Dismissal-Pay Provisions in Union Agreements, December 1944¹

Summary

DISMISSAL or severance compensation generally refers to payment, in addition to wages or salary, of a sum of money by the employer to an employee who is involuntarily laid off or discharged through no fault of his own. The amount of dismissal pay is in almost all instances based on an employee's length of service with the company, his rate of pay during such employment, and the reason for his dismissal. A few severance-wage plans make no distinction as to reasons for dismissal and provide payment to employees discharged for cause, as well as to those who retire or resign.

Under most plans, the dismissal payment varies directly with the amount of earnings of the employee. A week's wages or a month's salary is usually the unit for determining compensation. Most plans also relate compensation to length of service, but generally establish a limit on the amount payable to any individual worker—in terms of either a number of weeks' or months' pay or a specified sum. Dismissal compensation almost invariably is paid in a lump sum, although a few plans provide for periodic payments at regular weekly intervals.

As a rule, dismissals are compensated only if they are caused by circumstances over which the employee has no control, and some plans are further limited to cover dismissals resulting from technological changes or business mergers but not general lay-offs caused by slack work. Although dismissal compensation is sometimes paid to employees dismissed because of incompetence or inefficiency, generally the service requirements are higher and the maximum dismissal allowance is less than in the case of dismissal because of business reasons.

Although dismissal compensation is designed to ease the burden resulting from unemployment, it is basically different from unemployment compensation or unemployment insurance. The latter may or may not be financed from a joint fund, whereas dismissal compensation is financed solely by the employer. Unemployment compensation provides weekly (or biweekly or monthly) payments for the duration of unemployment or for the maximum number of weeks specified in the particular plan. Dismissal compensation, on the other hand, is usually a lump-sum payment, which is based on the length of service of the employee, and it takes no account of the actual time lost before a new job is found. Unemployment-compensation benefits are usually equal to about half pay, and are paid after a waiting period of

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Abraham Weiss.

1 or 2 weeks; dismissal compensation is almost invariably based on the employee's full weekly wage or salary and is generally paid at the time of dismissal.

In the past and, to some extent today, dismissal compensation indemnified the employee for final loss of his job and connoted a complete and permanent severance of the employment relationship; it represented a payment made for breaking a valuable relationship rather than reimbursement to cover a period of unemployment and was intended to compensate the worker for the loss of certain rights acquired on the job, such as seniority, vacation, pension, or retirement benefits. Most current union agreements, however, in providing dismissal pay do not distinguish temporary lay-off from permanent separation. Some agreements, notably those covering clerical or professional workers, do not use the term "lay-off"; other agreements use the term to denote dismissals; while still others allow dismissal pay to workers "laid off or dismissed."²

The American Newspaper Guild, which has succeeded in making dismissal pay a basic condition in practically all its agreements, regards dismissal pay as an equity which the individual employee builds up on his job and for which he should be compensated regardless of the reason of severance—whether for incompetence or other personal cause, or for economic reasons, by resignation, retirement, or death. The Guild is accordingly opposed to the use of the term "dismissal pay" and prefers "severance pay."

Most union agreements, whether or not they provide for dismissal pay, specify that employees laid off shall not lose their seniority status if rehired within a specified period. Also, an employee who receives dismissal pay when laid off does not lose status with the company but maintains reemployment rights based on his past service with the company, entitling him to be rehired before new persons are employed. Under dismissal plans which allow only 1 or 2 weeks' pay, seniority probably accumulates during lay-off, and reinstated employees would again receive dismissal pay, if again laid off, based on total service. Under a very few of the dismissal plans which allow more than 1 or 2 weeks' pay, if reinstatement takes place within a short time, it is provided that a portion of the dismissal pay, equal to the difference between the number of weeks' dismissal pay received and the number of weeks of lay-off, shall be returned to the company through deductions from wages. It is not clear, in these cases, whether an employee again laid off would be credited with prior service in determining the dismissal pay to which he is eligible. Under the Newspaper Guild agreements, and most others, there is no return of the dismissal pay but the reinstated employee, if laid off again, receives dismissal pay based on length of service only since the date of rehiring and not on total accumulated length of service with the company.

Dismissal compensation has not been common in American industry. When adopted, it has most frequently been applied to layoffs caused by technological improvements or to retrenchments involved in consolidations. In only a few industries, notably newspaper publishing and railroad transportation, have such provisions been adopted to any considerable extent through collective-bargaining procedures.

² The term "dismissal pay" is by no means uniform in union agreements; the phrases "severance pay," "severance compensation," "termination allowance," "separation pay," etc., are also found.

A considerable number of agreements covering clerical workers in offices and industrial establishments, and technical and social-service workers also provide dismissal pay. Scattered examples of dismissal-pay clauses are found in agreements in other industries including the chemical, electrical machinery, gas, petroleum refining and production, radio and telegraph, rayon yarn, telephone, and textile industries.

Special Dismissal-Pay Plans

In addition to the dismissal-pay plans provided in the agreements negotiated between individual employers and unions are those provided by law or arbitration award to take care of special circumstances within an industry. One of the first of these was a plan established by the trade board at a Chicago men's clothing company in 1926 to encourage a reduction in the surplus of cutters caused by changes in manufacturing processes. Under this plan every cutter who relinquished his job was paid a dismissal wage of \$500. About one-fifth of the cost incurred was borne by the union, and the rest by the firm. More recently, dismissal-pay plans have been adopted when large numbers of workers were to be laid off because of business consolidations or retrenchments. Outstanding examples are the plans provided for railroad and telegraph workers and New York milk-wagon drivers.

Railroad workers.—Because of the fear of railroad workers that possible consolidation among the railroads under the Emergency Railroad Transportation Act would result in widespread lay-offs, a nation-wide agreement³ was negotiated between the operating and nonoperating railroad unions and the carriers, which established a plan for compensating employees laid off as a result of "coordination." Displaced employees are entitled to receive monthly payments for periods ranging from 6 months after 1 year of service to 60 months after 15 years' service or more. The monthly payment is equivalent to 60 percent of the average monthly pay of the employee for the 12-month period preceding the dismissal. Employees with less than 1 year of service receive a lump-sum payment equivalent to 60 days' pay at the straight-time daily rate of their last position held prior to loss of employment.

Telegraph workers.—Early in 1943, Congress amended the Communications Act of 1934 to permit consolidation and merger of domestic telegraph carriers and made provision for dismissal pay to workers whose jobs were terminated as a result of the merger and for the continued employment of other workers.⁴ The amendment provided that employees of any merged company, whose employment began before a specified date, were to be assured employment for at least 4 years after the merger without reduction in compensation, and any employee whose employment began after the specified date, who was discharged as a result of the merger, would at any time within 4 years after the merger be entitled to severance pay of 1 month's wages for each year worked.

New York milk-wagon drivers.—In the summer of 1943, union milk-wagon drivers employed by two major New York milk companies faced loss of their jobs because of route consolidation and job elimina-

³ This "Washington Agreement" was negotiated in May 1936 for a 5-year term but has since been renewed for an indefinite period.

⁴ Section 222-f.

tion necessitated by the mileage-reduction program of the Office of Defense Transportation. To decide a dispute between the drivers' union and the companies over the displacement of these employees, the National War Labor Board⁵ granted dismissal pay to employees who lost their jobs because of the consolidation, on the basis of their former straight-time weekly earnings, ranging from 2 weeks' pay for employees with less than 6 months' service to 10 weeks' pay for those with service of 3 years or more.

Dismissal-Pay Plans in Union Agreements

Approximately 450 dismissal-pay plans covering about 135,000 workers were found in 9,500 current agreements examined. This did not include provisions in union agreements providing for advance notice of lay-off or pay in lieu of such notice, or dismissal-pay provisions in union agreements which contain guaranties of employment and in which such payment is made only in the event the guaranty is voided under stipulated circumstances. Slightly over a third of the dismissal-pay agreements were negotiated by the American Newspaper Guild (C. I. O.), covering approximately 20,000 workers; a similar proportion, covering about 7,500 workers, were negotiated by the International Typographical Union (A. F. of L.); about one-sixth, covering between 5,000 and 7,000 workers, were negotiated by the United Office and Professional Workers (C. I. O.); and the remaining agreements, negotiated by various unions, covered about 100,000 workers.

NEWSPAPER GUILD PLANS

Over 90 percent of the 182 agreements negotiated by the American Newspaper Guild, covering employees (except those in mechanical trades) working for newspapers, wire services, news weeklies and magazines, radio stations and allied fields, provide for severance pay.⁶ Under most of the Guild agreements, dismissal pay is allowed for all dismissals except for gross misconduct and neglect of duty, dishonesty, drunkenness, gross insubordination, willful provocation of discharge to collect dismissal pay, and under union-shop agreements, failure to maintain good-standing membership. In about 15 percent of the agreements, the right to receive dismissal pay is unqualified, and payment must be made regardless of the reason for dismissal.

About half of the agreements provide a severance allowance payable to the beneficiary of an employee who dies while in the employ of the publisher. Twenty-seven provide that dismissal pay will be given on bona fide retirement, and 9 provide dismissal pay on resignation. Retirement benefits usually are limited to employees with 25 years of service and may specify illness or old age as conditions. Such provisions frequently give the employer reciprocal rights of retiring an employee who has reached a certain age, such as 65, and a stated length of service, although the Guild prefers to make retirement solely a matter of the employee's choice.

Veterans participate in dismissal pay in a special way; 125 Guild agreements specify that they will receive such grants if disabled during

⁵ N. W. L. B. Case No. 197, Release B-1017, dated October 4, 1943.

⁶ Information obtained from *Wages and Conditions in American Newspaper Guild Contracts*, June 10, 1944, published by the American Newspaper Guild, New York, 1944, and from union agreements on file in the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

military service, and 92 make provision for payment to beneficiaries in cases of death in service. Both these requirements are considered implicit in other Guild agreements, from the fact that dismissal pay is provided for all employees who are discharged or die and a veteran is considered as an employee until his services are dispensed with by the employer or are terminated by death. A number of Guild agreements credit all or part of the time spent in military service in computing the total amount of severance pay, and a few give employees the option of collecting severance pay before they enter service, while still maintaining their reinstatement rights.

All the Guild agreements contain graduated plans in which the dismissal payment is based on earnings and length of service. The agreements most commonly specify a uniform relation between pay and service, such as 1 week's pay for every 6 or 8 months' or year's service. Occasionally, dismissal pay is determined according to a schedule allowing a specified number of weeks' pay for stated years of service, but changing the ratio of weeks of pay to service at certain intervals.

Slightly under 10 percent of the agreements establish no ceiling on the amount of dismissal pay but allow pay based on the employee's total length of service. Most of the agreements, however, specify a maximum allowance, ranging from 4 to 52 weeks' pay, although about three-fifths specify between 26 and 30 weeks, while some agreements stipulate a maximum lump sum, ranging from \$750 to \$5,000. The following shows the dismissal-pay maxima specified in Guild agreements current as of June 1944.

	Number of agreements		Number o f agreements
4 weeks	2	28 weeks	24
5 weeks	1	30 weeks	31
10 weeks	3	34 weeks	1
14 weeks	1	43½ weeks	1
15 weeks	6	52 weeks	1
16 weeks	8	\$750	1
19 weeks	1	\$880	1
20 weeks	14	\$1,000	2
22 weeks	1	\$1,500	1
24 weeks	10	\$5,000	3
26 weeks	38	No limit	14

One week's pay is most commonly based on the highest salary received by an employee during his employment with the company, or the highest during the preceding 6 months or year. Some agreements figure severance pay on the average weekly salary received during a specified period (usually 6 months or a year) prior to dismissal, or, less frequently, the employee's current rate of pay.

About one-fourth of the Guild agreements, in addition to providing dismissal pay, grant preference in reemployment to employees who have been dismissed for reasons of economy, while a few agreements extend this right to all employees dismissed except for cause. A few agreements in the former group limit the right to preferential reemployment to 1 year after the dismissal for reasons of economy, or restrict it to Guild members. In most cases an employer may make his own choice of the order in which he hires former employees, although in others rehiring must be "in priority order." If rehired, future calculations of dismissal pay would, of course, be based on service since the date of rehiring.

INTERNATIONAL TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION AGREEMENTS

The International Typographical Union (A. F. of L.), recently has made considerable headway in obtaining dismissal-pay provisions in its agreements. By August 1944 the union had obtained such provisions in 79 newspaper and 90 commercial-printing agreements, covering about 7,500 workers.

Unlike the Guild agreements, dismissal pay in the Typographical agreements is paid only for dismissals caused by suspension of business or merger. With but a few exceptions, no service requirements are stipulated, and the dismissal payment is the same for all employees affected, regardless of length of service, amounting, in general, to 2 weeks.⁷

AGREEMENTS OF UNITED OFFICE AND PROFESSIONAL WORKERS

The United Office and Professional Workers of America (C. I. O.) has organized employees in offices, graphic arts and related fields, financial institutions and insurance companies, and nonprofit institutions such as the social-service agencies. Altogether, 73 agreements with dismissal-pay provisions negotiated by this union, all but a few of which cover firms in New York City, were analyzed.⁸ Slightly less than half of these agreements cover employees of private social-service agencies and other nonprofit organizations, who are not covered by the Social Security Act. Over a fifth of them cover office employees of book publishers and distributors, and the others cover bank, motion-picture distribution, insurance brokerage, industrial office, and general office workers.

Dismissal pay is generally allowed to employees dismissed because of "retrenchment or reorganization" (the reason most commonly specified in the agreements covering nonprofit agencies), laid off because of lack of work, or discharged except for such specific causes as drunkenness, dishonesty, insubordination, violation of company rules, malfeasance, failure to maintain good standing under a maintenance of union membership clause, or other specified causes. Six of the agreements with nonprofit organizations, including social-service agencies, specifically provide dismissal pay to workers dismissed for "incompetency," or "unsatisfactory performance of work," and two agreements with book publishers grant dismissal pay to workers discharged for "inefficiency" (in one case only if the individual has been employed more than 5 years). Several additional agreements provide dismissal pay to employees dismissed "for reasons of retrenchment or reorganization" and for "other reasons, except malfeasance." Under these provisions, employees dismissed because of inefficiency or incompetence probably receive dismissal compensation.

■ One agreement with an insurance firm extends dismissal pay to employees who are forced to leave permanently because of ill health.

⁷ International Typographical Union Bulletin, August 1944 (p. 175) and union agreements on file in the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

⁸ In addition to dismissal compensation which is stated to be in lieu of a pension provision and to which only employees with 3 years' service are eligible, one agreement with a nonprofit organization provides weekly compensation in lieu of "government unemployment compensation" to employees who have worked with the organization for at least 1 year and who are laid off or discharged, except for reasons that the organization and union agree are cause for immediate dismissal. Benefits amount to \$15 per week (or 50 percent of the weekly salary at the time immediately preceding release, whichever is less) until other employment is secured, provided the period of unemployment does not exceed 20 weeks. For those with less than 1 year of service, the maximum unemployment compensation equals 4 weeks for each 3 months of service. It is further added that employees released shall actually search for other work, accept any reasonable work offered, and report their progress weekly to the organization.

In a few agreements, dismissal compensation is paid to employees honorably discharged or laid off for more than a specified period—30 days in two, and 3 months in two others. One of the agreements stipulates that any employee who cannot be rehired on his return from military service, because of retrenchment or reorganization during his absence, shall receive dismissal pay as of the date of his army discharge, less the military severance bonus paid on his induction.

All but a few of these agreements with dismissal pay provide for rehiring on the basis of seniority; four with film distributors provide that employees subsequently rehired during the same calendar year, after having received dismissal pay, shall not be entitled to the vacation privilege. The others include no special arrangements except that one, in which the dismissal pay is in weekly installments in amounts not less than one-half of the employee's wages, specifies that such payments shall cease upon reemployment. All the other agreements, except three, specify that the payments shall be in a lump sum; under three the payment may be made in either a lump sum or installments, as agreed among the employer, union, and employee, provided the full amount is paid within the period for which the employee is entitled to receive dismissal pay and provided no single installment is less than the employee's weekly wage. Five agreements, all with film distributors, specify that the company may deduct necessary taxes from the dismissal pay.

Seventy of the 73 agreements negotiated by this union provide dismissal pay graduated according to length of service. In contrast, three provide for fixed payments equivalent to a specified number of weeks' wages; two of these allow a maximum of 2 weeks' pay to employees "dismissed" or laid off, and the third allows regular professional workers 1 month's pay and other workers 2 weeks' pay if dismissal is caused by retrenchment or reorganization, while all employees receive 2 weeks' pay if dismissed for incompetence. In two of the three agreements, all regular employees are eligible; in the third, employees must have 2 years' service to be eligible.

One week's pay for every year of service is most frequently allowed under the 70 agreements with graduated plans, although a few allow 2 weeks' pay for every year of service. In a number of agreements employees receive 1 week's pay for the first 6 months' service, and 2 weeks' pay after 1 year's service, but receive 1 week per year of service thereafter. Two establish a ratio of 2 weeks' pay for every year of service if the cause of dismissal is "retrenchment or reorganization," or "reorganization," respectively, but only 1 week per year of service if the cause of dismissal is incompetence in the one case, and retrenchment or other reasons, in the other. In about one-fifth of the agreements with graduated plans, the dismissal compensation is determined by certain service-year groupings.

Only 5 agreements have minimum service requirements exceeding 1 year; one requires 1½ years' service and four, 2 years' service. In three of the latter group, the 2 years of service are included in calculating dismissal pay; in the fourth, 1 week's pay is allowed for 2 years' service and 1 week's pay for every year of service of more than 2 years. Fourteen agreements list no service requirements and presumably all regular employees, i. e., those who have completed their probationary periods, are eligible.

Seven agreements—six with social-service agencies and one with a book publisher—establish two kinds of service requirements, depending on the reason for the dismissal. In the six social-service agreements, the service requirement for dismissal pay is 1 or 2 years if the cause of dismissal is retrenchment or reorganization. In two of these, employees dismissed for incompetence also receive dismissal pay but only if they have 3 and 13 years' service, respectively, while in the other four, employees dismissed for reasons other than retrenchment or reorganization, except malfeasance, receive dismissal pay only if they have worked for periods ranging from 3 to 5 years. In the seventh agreement, employees laid off receive dismissal pay after 6 months' service while those discharged for inefficiency receive dismissal pay only after 5 years' service.

The maximum dismissal allowance ranges from 1 week's pay to an unlimited amount, depending on length of service. About one-fourth (19) of the agreements with graduated plans do not explicitly establish maxima for dismissal pay but allow full payment based on the employee's length of service in accordance with the graduated plan outlined in the agreement. Twenty-six allow a maximum of 1 month's pay or less,⁹ 6 allow maxima ranging from 6 to 10 weeks, 10 allow a maximum of 12 weeks' pay, and 8 maxima ranging from 14 weeks' to 10 months' pay.¹⁰ The agreement, which provides that the dismissal wage shall be paid at weekly intervals in amounts not less than one-half of the employee's wages, establishes a maximum of \$400.

Although the large majority of agreements provide dismissal pay only for dismissals caused by business conditions, a few make no distinction (in the amount paid) between dismissals for economy and dismissals for other reasons, including, in seven cases, incompetence, inefficiency, or "unsatisfactory performance of work," while others provide varying amounts, depending on the reason for dismissal. Seven agreements with social-service agencies pay more when dismissal is caused by retrenchment or reorganization than when dismissal is due to other reasons, except malfeasance. In two of these cases the difference amounts to 2 weeks; in two others, 4 weeks; and in the remaining three, 8 weeks. Another agreement allows employees a maximum of 1 week's pay when laid off and 2 weeks' pay when dismissed because of a "decline in business operations."

DISMISSAL PAY IN OTHER AGREEMENTS

Agreements in industries other than those discussed above furnish only scattered examples of dismissal-pay clauses, although several cover comparatively large companies. Thirty-four such agreements are on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics¹¹ covering approximately 100,000 in the following industries: Chemicals, electrical machinery, film processing, gas utility, laundry, machinery, non-ferrous-metal smelting and refining, petroleum, news services, pro-

⁹ One agreement requires 2 weeks' notice of dismissal to employees with less than 15 years' service and 1 month's notice to employees with longer service. If the employee finds another job during the period of notice, he is released and his pay continues to the end of the notice period.

¹⁰ Under one of these, which allows a maximum of 26 weeks' dismissal pay, in the event of the company's dissolution, the agreement stipulates that the employer will be responsible for payment only to the extent of the firm's assets.

¹¹ This report does not include a street-railway company agreement which might be interpreted as providing dismissal pay to older employees displaced by reason of technological development. This agreement provides that streetcar operators with 15 years' service who are "unable to continue at work by reason of the installation of one-man streetcars shall be retired from service" and paid a monthly pension of \$65 until the age of 65.

fessional and scientific instruments, radio and telegraph, rayon yarn, telephone, and textiles. Among the important companies which pay dismissal compensation under the terms of union agreements¹² are the Sinclair Oil Corp., National Carbon Co., American Viscose Corp., Postal Telegraph-Cable Co.,¹³ Northwestern Bell Telephone Co., Celanese Corp. of America, Michigan Bell Telephone Co., Associated Press, and United Press (press telegraph operators). Two-thirds of these agreements cover workers paid by the hour, while the others cover salaried employees. In two cases the agreements are limited to technical and laboratory workers, and agreements covering production workers in these two plants do not contain dismissal-pay provisions.

Dismissal compensation is generally paid, under these agreements, to employees terminated or laid off "through no fault of their own," or who are laid off or discharged "except for just cause," or who are laid off because of "reduction in staff." Under one agreement, dismissal pay is allowed to employees released because of "shut-down or discontinuance of any department or type of work or manufacture, or by reason of the conversion of the nature and type of machines used or articles manufactured." This same agreement allows dismissal pay to workers entering the armed forces. Under another, with a large company engaged wholly in war contracts, employees "laid off for lack of work" receive dismissal pay only if the employer is "notified by the governmental authorities that severance pay can be set up as a charge against Government contracts." In another agreement, all employees who are "in good standing with the company and the union and of necessity must be laid off by the company" receive dismissal pay.

One of the agreements, with a gas company, also allows dismissal pay to employees who resign, while another provides for payment (less legal costs or expenses) to beneficiaries of employees except those who die while on leave of absence granted at their request. Abandonment of the plant cancels the obligation to pay dismissal compensation under one agreement, while in another, the provision does not apply if employees are given at least 10 days' notice before lay-off becomes effective.

Six of the agreements, covering about 45,000 workers, limit dismissal payment to displacements resulting from mechanization or technological changes,¹⁴ although one of these further provides that an employee separated from employment because of physical disqualifications is entitled to the same separation allowances as paid by the company to employees technologically displaced.¹⁵ Under one agreement, honorably discharged veterans who are unable to resume their former employment because of "physical or mental disability" receive dismissal pay.

The great majority of the agreements provide for rehiring of laid-off or dismissed workers on the basis of seniority. Waiver of reemployment rights based on seniority, upon receipt of dismissal pay,

¹² Several agreements of one company which refer to existing company policy on "termination allowances" grant the company the right to terminate or modify the plan at any time, and have therefore been excluded from the analysis. This plan was the only one in which age was a factor in determining the amount of dismissal compensation.

¹³ Although this company has recently merged with Western Union, this agreement is still operative.

¹⁴ One of these, with a telegraph company, limits to 250 the number of those who may be dismissed because of mechanization. Another agreement in this industry, on the other hand, prohibits dismissals during the life of the agreement "because of mechanization or technological changes."

¹⁵ By Directive Order of the National War Labor Board, March 24, 1943.

is expressly stipulated in five agreements with gas, rayon-yarn, and radio and cable companies which allow employees facing dismissal to accept either furlough with retention of seniority rights, or dismissal pay with cancellation of earned seniority. Employees who are furloughed may later waive reemployment rights by accepting dismissal compensation.

Half of the agreements with dismissal-pay provisions define "a week's pay" as an amount equal to the employee's regular rate or average earnings multiplied by the hours of the basic workweek. Three agreements with news-service companies, on the other hand, stipulate that dismissal pay shall be based on the employee's "highest regular weekly salary," and one provides a week's "full wages." Under one agreement a week's pay in the case of an employee normally working varying hours is defined as an average of the weekly earnings, excluding overtime, differentials, and other special payments, "over a period sufficient to be representative of the employee's normal schedule."

Twenty-eight of the 34 agreements provide for dismissal pay graduated according to length of service, 5 provide a fixed number of weeks' wages, regardless of length of service beyond the qualifying period, and 1 provides for an "amount agreed to by the union and employer."

Of the five agreements which provide dismissal pay for a fixed number of weeks, three provide for 2 weeks' pay and two for 1 week's pay. Three specify minimum periods of service of 6 months, 1 year, and 2 years, respectively; the others make no reference to service eligibility requirements although presumably only regular or permanent employees are eligible.

Graduated-Pay Plans

All of the 28 agreements with graduated plans establish minimum service requirements for dismissal pay, ranging from 30 days to 5 years, although about one-half specify 1 year; one agreement, with a telegraph company, limits dismissal pay to employees hired within the 18-month period prior to the effective date of the agreement.¹⁶ Although about a fourth of the agreements provide compensation at the rate of 1 week's pay for every year of service, most of the other plans vary widely in the relationship between pay and service. In four cases, including two agreements of one company, pay is computed by days, based on months of service; in the others, dismissal pay is computed in multiples of a week's pay, based on years (or fraction thereof) of service.

About three-fourths of the agreements with graduated plans establish a maximum allowance ranging from 40 hours' to 26 weeks' pay, according to length of service. One allows a maximum of 40 hours' pay;¹⁷ 9 allow a maximum of 2 weeks' pay; 1, a maximum of 3 weeks' pay; 1 allows 1 month's pay and 2 allow 4 weeks' pay; 2 allow a maximum of 10 weeks (one of these also provides 2 weeks' dismissal pay upon resignation); 1 a maximum of 16 weeks; and 3, covering press telegraph operators employed by press services,

¹⁶ In one of these agreements, the service eligibility requirement "for military replacement employees" is 2 years; for other employees, 6 months.

¹⁷ Under this plan, employees dismissed after 1 year of service receive 3 days' pay of 8 hours each plus 1 day's pay of 8 hours for each additional year of service, up to a maximum of 40 hours.

26 weeks.¹ One agreement with an oil refinery provides for a flat payment of \$10, instead of pay equal to a week's wages, for each year or fraction of service with the company subsequent to a specified date upon termination of employment or when laid off for more than 30 calendar days. This agreement also stipulates that "total severance payments received by an employee over a period of years shall not exceed \$10 for each calendar year, or part thereof, he has been in the employ of the company. . ." The other 7 agreements do not explicitly establish maxima for dismissal pay but allow full payment based on the employee's length of service.

Three agreements, two with telephone companies and one with a metal-products company, specifically provide for refund of part of the dismissal pay if the worker is rehired within the period covered by such payment—the former two of these by pay-roll deductions at the rate of 10 percent of the employee's weekly earnings.

One agreement, with a gas utility, provides for the deduction from dismissal pay of an "amount equal to the weekly payment to which the employee might become entitled were he presently eligible to receive weekly payment under the unemployment-compensation law of Ohio, multiplied by the number of years of his service less 3 years, which multiple shall in no event exceed 7." Under this agreement, therefore, employees with less than 3 years' service receive full compensation on dismissal, but those with more than 3 years' service receive as dismissal compensation the difference between a full week's pay and unemployment-compensation benefits.



Prepayment Medical Care in the United States

MORE than 3.3 million persons were eligible for medical services under 214 prepayment plans in medical-care organizations studied by the Social Security Board in 1943.² Subscribers numbered about 1.8 million, and their membership entitled 1.5 million dependents to care on a similar basis or on a fee-reduced basis. A relatively small group of dependents (about 364,000) fell into the latter category. From its findings and data on plans not included in this survey, the Board has concluded that probably less than 5 percent of the noninstitutional civilian population of the United States has some degree of protection against the unexpected costs of medical care, through membership in a prepayment medical-care organization or as dependents of members of such organizations.³

The coverage of the various types of plans studied is shown in table 1.

¹ In 2 of these cases, the parties have negotiated a new agreement providing a maximum of 30 weeks' dismissal pay, at the rate of 1 week's pay for every 6 months' service. These agreements are before the National War Labor Board, for its approval.

² Prepayment Medical Care Organizations, by Margaret C. Klem. Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics (Bureau Memorandum No. 55, 2d ed.), Washington, 1944.

³ This estimate excludes members of Blue Cross and other prepayment plans designed solely for meeting the costs of hospitalization; members of medical-care plans of the Farm Security Administration; students in colleges and universities who receive medical care through the organized student-health services of these institutions; members of the armed forces, and to some extent their dependents, who receive medical care from the medical departments of the Army, Navy, U. S. Public Health Service, and the like; veterans eligible for care through Veterans Administration facilities; persons eligible for care furnished under workmen's compensation laws; persons receiving only cash sickness benefits under arrangements for wage-loss compensation or medical indemnity through commercial insurance, industrial plans, or the Rhode Island program for industrial and commercial workers; recipients of public assistance in Kansas covered by a prepayment medical-care plan; and public-assistance recipients in other States which may provide for costs of medical care in determining the assistance payment.

TABLE 1.—*Coverage of Prepayment Medical-Care Plans, by Type of Organization, 1943*

Type of organization	Number of plans	Persons eligible for care			
		Total		On prepayment basis	
		Number	Percent	Subscribers	Dependents
All types	214	3,320,408	100.0	1,786,025	1,170,761
Industrial	113	1,425,325	42.9	866,014	318,261
Financed by employees	47	734,284	22.1	472,259	74,126
Other	66	691,041	20.8	393,755	244,135
Medical society	33	941,812	28.4	525,560	413,282
Washington and Oregon	15	230,147	6.9	229,247	900
Other States	18	711,665	21.5	299,313	412,352
Private-group clinics	24	490,980	14.8	212,563	163,130
Consumer-sponsored	29	176,841	5.3	74,950	94,606
Governmental	12	243,295	7.3	87,443	155,852
Unclassified	3	42,155	1.3	16,495	25,600

Industrial plans were defined as those organized within an industrial establishment, whether initiated by the employer or the employees, or by joint employer-employee action.⁴ They numbered 113 and had 866,000 subscribers and 559,000 dependents (241,000 of the latter on a reduced-fee basis). Altogether, this group totaled 1.4 million persons and included the largest proportions in the study as to number of plans, subscribers, and total persons eligible for care—52.8, 48.5, and 42.9 percent, respectively, of the entire coverage.

The largest industrial plan studied concerned approximately 153,000 persons, made up of employees of a Birmingham, Ala., company and their dependents, and represented a 90-percent employee coverage. Another plan in the vicinity, with a 100-percent employee coverage, had about 27,000 subscribers and dependents; employees were also eligible to subscribe for hospitalization in a private group clinic covering 65,844 persons.

In the greater number of the industrial plans all or part of the cost of the medical service provided is paid for by the company. However, in 47 plans the cost was financed entirely by the employees. These plans, therefore, were in reality consumer-sponsored, but they were not so classified in the report because their membership was restricted to employees of a given company (table 3).

Medical-society plans are organized by State or county medical societies, singly or in groups, on a State-wide, or, more often, a county basis. They provide medical service through the physicians who have chosen to participate. The participating physicians agree to accept, on a fee-for-service basis, a prorated share of the funds contributed by the subscribers (after administrative expenses have been deducted), to reimburse them for services to patients below a specified income level. For patients above that income level the physician may, in addition, charge patients the difference between the amount specified by the organization and his usual fee. Under these plans the physician continues in individual practice. The patient has free choice of a physician among those participating. Collection of dues and payment of bills are centralized under the direct supervision of the society. The subscriber has no voice in the management of plans.

⁴ Plans which provided only first aid and treatment of industrial accidents or injuries covered by State workmen's compensation laws were not included. Also excluded were the plans which consisted solely of care given by a nurse in an emergency room or by a physician available only a few hours a week.

Medical-society plans constituted the next largest group after the industrial plans, and included 28.4 percent of all persons eligible for medical care in the 214 plans studied. There were 528,560 subscribers and 413,252 dependents eligible for care under prepayment medical-society plans, a total of almost 942,000 persons. No services were offered at reduced rates under this plan.

The medical-society plans of Washington and Oregon were tabulated separately, as the type of service offered in those States is more akin to that of the industrial plans than to that of the usual medical-society plan. The medical-society plans of these two States accounted for 6.9 percent of the total coverage of persons studied, and included 229,247 subscribers, with only 900 dependents. Among the other States, Michigan and California accounted for 520,662 and 103,149 persons, respectively. A single State-wide medical-society plan, operating from Detroit and having 209,924 subscribers and 310,738 dependents, made up the Michigan total. Three plans (two State-wide), operated by a San Francisco physicians' service, accounted for the California total.

Private-group clinics are those owned and managed by one or more physicians. Services are usually provided by a number of physicians who practice as a group, using joint office facilities and equipment. The physicians are under the supervision of a medical director, and, unlike the physicians participating in medical-society plans, do not as a rule engage in individual private practice. These clinics assume the responsibility for both medical and administrative procedures, and the patient is served by one or more physicians according to his medical needs.

Private-group clinics constituted 14.8 of the total coverage of the study, and persons served by them numbered 490,980, consisting of 212,563 subscribers and 278,417 dependents (115,287 of the latter on a reduced-fee basis). California, Oregon, and Washington accounted for over half of this total. A single plan in Pennsylvania covered 100,000 persons; and another, in Alabama, had 66,000.

Consumer-sponsored plans were those organized by subscribers, in which the services were usually provided by salaried medical personnel. Such plans accounted for only 5.3 percent of the total coverage of the 214 plans studied. (For details of these plans, by States, see table 3.)

Governmental plans were those established by governmental units for their employees, usually on a compulsory basis. Twelve such plans were included in the report. The total number of persons eligible for care under them constituted 7.3 of the coverage and stood at 243,295, with 87,443 subscribers and 155,852 dependents eligible for care on a prepayment basis only.

Most of these plans were for seasonal agricultural workers who were recruited, transported, housed, or placed by the War Food Administration or a cooperating agency, and whose numbers varied from season to season. Some of the single plans each covered a number of States. This group included the medical-care plan for Federal employees in the National Park system in areas inaccessible to other medical facilities, as well as the plan operated by the city and county governments of San Francisco for their employees (covering 15,000 persons).

Geographical Distribution

In the Pacific States (Washington, Oregon, California), more than a million persons, or more than 10 percent of their population, were covered by 57 plans. New England, on the other hand, had the smallest coverage, both in absolute numbers and in relation to population—only 0.2 percent of the 1943 civilian population. In other geographical divisions from 1 to 3 percent of the population was covered by such arrangements.

Among the 36 States (and the District of Columbia and Hawaii) represented in the 214 plans studied, individual States ranking high in absolute numbers⁵ were California (611,392), Michigan (525,362), Alabama (282,412), Washington (253,485), New York (222,381), Oregon (173,450), and Missouri (160,427).

Services Provided

Prepayment organizations vary greatly in the combination of services provided, and many limitations are placed on the amount of care furnished. In the study, industrial plans offered a greater variety of service than did the other types. More than 65 percent of the persons eligible for care under the 214 plans were entitled to receive physicians' care in the office, home, and hospital, for medical and surgical cases, and hospitalization for other than certain excluded illnesses. Almost three-fourths of all eligible persons (73.5 percent) were entitled to hospitalization as one of the services provided.

All persons covered by the medical-society plans in Washington and Oregon, and by the governmental plans, were entitled to receive relatively comprehensive care (i. e., the services of a physician for medical and surgical cases in the office, home, and hospital, and hospitalization). Services of these types were available to about 80 percent of persons covered by total industrial plans, 77 percent of those in private-group clinics, and 57 percent of those in consumer-sponsored plans.

The medical-society plans in States other than Washington and Oregon provide primarily surgical care in the hospital; 77 percent of their membership was entitled to receive such care; about 13 percent was eligible for physicians' care in the hospital for both medical and surgical cases; while less than 10 percent could receive physicians' care in the office, home, and hospital, as well as hospitalization, under the prepayment contract.⁶

Only a few of the medical-society plans studied included additional services such as physicians' services for maternity care; services of visiting nurses; special-duty nursing in the hospital; X-ray and laboratory services; drugs and medicines; and dental care.

Dental care.—A few of the plans studied provided fairly comprehensive dental services, including examinations, extractions, fillings, prophylaxis, diagnostic X-ray, surgery, and prosthetic work, but more generally dental care was limited to one, two, or three of the following types of services: Extractions, X-ray, prophylaxis, examinations.

Dental care was provided more frequently by governmental plans than by any others. A large proportion of all persons eligible for fairly comprehensive care were members of governmental plans or

⁵ In the study the entire membership was allocated to the State in which the headquarters office was located.

⁶ Many persons eligible for care in the medical-society plans outside Washington and Oregon also belong to Blue Cross hospitalization plans under separate arrangements, not summarized in the report.

agricultural groups in consumer-sponsored plans financed in part from Federal funds.

More than 80 percent of the persons eligible for care through the medical-society plans in Washington and Oregon could also receive one or two types of dental service. No medical-society plans outside these States included any form of dental care.

Fourteen of the 24 private-group clinics included dentistry among the services provided on a prepayment basis. About 37 percent of the persons covered by these plans were eligible for a substantial amount of dental care on either a prepayment or a reduced-fee basis, and 30 percent were eligible for one of two types of dental care.

Industrial plans provided some type of dental care for 67 percent of their subscribers and dependents. About half (541,000) were entitled to relatively little care; 269,000 could get more care, but on a fee-reduced basis; while 150,000 out of 1,425,325 persons of this group were eligible for substantial care on a prepayment basis.

Professional Staff

More than 32,000 physicians—nearly one-third of all the physicians in the United States who were engaged in private fee-for-service practice in the last pre-war year—were serving either full time or part time with the organizations studied. These included 836 employed full time, about 6,500 employed part time, and about 25,000 ("participating") who had agreed to accept members of the organizations as patients under the plans (see table 2). In addition, an unknown number of physicians in 55 communities had agreed to give services to persons eligible for care.

Of the 2,148 full-time registered graduate nurses participating in the plans, over two-thirds (1,471) were in industrial plans, 314 in private group clinics, 194 in consumer-sponsored organizations, and 122 in governmental plans. Nearly all the registered nurses served in clinics or physicians' offices, and a few were attached to hospitals owned by the prepayment medical-care associations. Almost no visiting-nurse service or bedside nursing in the home is provided by any of the organizations, but a few furnish special nursing in hospitals for cases requiring such care.

TABLE 2.—Number of Physicians and Nurses Associated with Medical-Care Plans, by Type of Organization, 1943

Type of organization	Number of plans	Physicians associated with plan ¹			Full-time registered graduate nurses
		Full-time	Part- time	Partici- pating	
All types.....	214	836	6,551	24,756	2,148
Industrial.....	113	508	5,872	149	1,471
Financed by employees.....	47	259	4,214	41	877
Other.....	66	249	1,658	108	594
Medical-society.....	33	23	-----	20,267	46
Washington and Oregon.....	15	1	-----	1,516	(9)
Other States.....	18	22	-----	18,751	46
Private group clinics.....	24	235	466	60	314
Consumer-sponsored.....	29	52	211	3,550	194
Governmental.....	12	16	2	730	122
Unclassified.....	3	2	-----	-----	1

¹ In addition, the membership of 55 organizations may be served by local physicians; number of such physicians unknown.

² 1 part-time nurse also employed.

³ 8 part-time nurses also employed.

⁴ 8 part-time nurses employed.

Consumer-Sponsored and Employee-Financed Plans

Of the 214 plans covered, 29 were classified as consumer-sponsored and may be regarded as cooperative. These plans, as shown in table 3, were providing service for a total of 176,841 persons. Ten of the associations (with 23,191 members) were operating their own clinics or hospitals. The others obtained service from full-time or part-time physicians on a contract basis.

The distribution of the consumer-sponsored plans, by States, is shown in table 3. Also shown are 47 industrial plans which are financed entirely by the employees; the Social Security Board regards these as "consumer-sponsored plans," but did not so classify them⁷ because their membership is open only to employees. The report does not indicate the extent of employee control in such plans.

TABLE 3.—*Coverage and Medical and Nursing Staff of Consumer-Sponsored and Employee-Financed Prepayment Medical Plans, 1943*

State	Number of plans	Persons eligible for care on prepayment basis		Physicians associated with plan			Full-time registered graduate nurses
		Subscribers	Dependents	Full-time	Part-time	Participating	
Consumer-sponsored plans							
All States	29	74,950	1 94,606	52	211	3,550	194
Arkansas	1	1,437	4,673				1
California	5	18,093	9,107	21	122		154
District of Columbia	1	3,471	5,145	8	3		9
Florida	1	2,400	5,000	2	5		8
Georgia	1	881	3,150				2
Maryland	1	434	1,040	2	1		2
Minnesota	2	1,003	1,86				
Mississippi	1	1,985	6,973				1
Missouri	1	370	42	4	8		
Nebraska	3	851	2,958	2			1
New York	5	36,803	43,366	4	72	3,550	11
Oklahoma	1	2,507	7,493	5			2
Texas	3	4,460	14,527	2			1
Utah	1	255	1,046	2			2
Industrial plans financed by employees alone							
All States	47	472,259	1 74,126	8 250	8 4,214	41	8 877
Alabama	3	6,229	1,917	1	18	41	
Arkansas	1	942			8		
California	7	146,099	36,150	152	567		339
Colorado	3	12,969		3	155		18
Georgia	1	1,250			13		1
Illinois	3	90,226		3	1,299		148
Indiana	1	5,177					
Louisiana	1	1,134	3,502	5	6		
Massachusetts	2	3,065	1,547		1		
Michigan	1	4,700					
Minnesota	1	26,900		20	506		78
Missouri	2	65,000		12	1,119		69
New Jersey	2	3,148		2			1
New York	2	1,215			2		
North Carolina	3	8,490	11,563	11			24
Ohio	2	13,520	9,303	1	1		
Oklahoma	2	25,000		11	2		8
Oregon	1	750			22		
Pennsylvania	2	2,227	732		1		6
Texas	3	21,902	2,500	11	463		11
Virginia	1	1,060	2,000				
Washington	1	30,500	3,500	38	2		165
West Virginia	2	756	1,412				

¹ Not including 285 persons eligible for service on reduced-fee basis, and 7,000 dependents also on reduced fee basis.

² All plans offered by a single association.

³ Not including 285 persons eligible for service on reduced-fee basis.

⁴ Not including 7,000 dependents on reduced-fee basis.

⁵ Not including 187,899 persons eligible for service on reduced-fee basis, for whom distribution by States was not available.

⁶ Not the exact sum of items shown.

⁷ The 47 plans are included in industrial plans shown in table 1.

Discharged Soldiers

Guaranty of Home Loans for Veterans¹

REGULATIONS concerning the guaranty of loans by the Veterans Administration for servicemen of the present war were announced on October 19, 1944. These are the first issued under the loan-guaranty provisions of the "G. I. Bill of Rights"² and, with the statute, form the legal basis for guaranteeing loans that may be made available to veterans by institutions or individuals. The regulations provide that a duly qualified serviceman who desires to buy or build a home, or to improve an existing dwelling, is to go to his bank, building and loan association, or other lending agency or individual and discuss his plans. Should the veteran be inexperienced in such matters, he may go to the appropriate Federal agency for advice.

If the potential lender decides that the property is suitable for the purpose and of a reasonable value and that the serviceman can repay the loan out of his income, the lender is to communicate with the nearest Veterans Administration office regarding the eligibility of the applicant, explaining that a loan is contemplated, and inquiring as to the amount that will be available for guaranty purposes. The Veterans Administration, in addition to giving this information, is to designate the appraiser and the agency for processing the loan. The total amount that can be guaranteed by the Veterans Administration is limited to a maximum of \$2,000. This sum can be made available to the veteran in various terms and various amounts as long as it does not exceed the maximum. The Veterans Administration communicates these facts to the lender who then proceeds to have an appraisal made of the property in order to determine its "reasonable normal value." Assuming that the appraisal is satisfactory, the lender forwards the necessary papers (signed by the veteran) to the designated agency, which in turn informs the Veterans Administration whether or not the proposed loan meets the requirements of the act and the regulations. The Veterans Administration will approve or disapprove the application, and if it approves, will issue the loan-guaranty certificate representing the obligation of the United States. If the guaranty is disapproved, the lender may still make the loan without the guaranty, if he so desires. When a guaranty is approved by the Administrator, the veteran and the lender are notified and the loan is closed.

¹ U. S. Veterans Administration, Press release Ad. 644, October 19, 1944; U. S. Veterans Administration, Guaranty of Loans, Regulations under Title III, Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (F. R. Doc. 44-16112, October 19, 1944).

² See Monthly Labor Review, August 1944 (pp. 383-384).

Veterans' Rehabilitation in New Zealand¹

THE New Zealand Rehabilitation Act of October 17, 1941, provided for the establishment of machinery to plan a program of special benefits for returned servicemen and for their reabsorption into civilian life. Under this legislation specific benefits have been provided for the ex-servicemen, but generally it is recognized that the successful reestablishment of former members of the armed forces in civil life depends upon broad reconstruction planning. A beginning has been made by the establishment of several agencies to organize the reconstruction.²

Administration of Rehabilitation

Under the Rehabilitation Act, a National Rehabilitation Council was formed in January 1942 with the Minister of Rehabilitation as Chairman. The Council was to make recommendations relating to the reestablishment of ex-servicemen in civil life. To carry out the policies laid down, the act also provided for a Rehabilitation Board, composed of not more than five members of the Council under the chairmanship of the deputy chairman of the Council. Early in 1944, the Rehabilitation Board was reorganized and representation on it was broadened. Findings of the Rehabilitation Board are final, within the framework of the Government policy, and all Government departments doing rehabilitation work can be directed to put the Board's findings into effect. A certain amount of decentralization is made possible by the 29 rehabilitation branch offices now being established throughout the country.

Following the first report of the Board (covering the period February 1942 to March 1943), the Prime Minister announced a separate cabinet portfolio for rehabilitation. The rehabilitation work itself was still performed by the various existing departments, designated by the Board as its agents in defined fields of rehabilitation policy. The Board utilized the Rehabilitation Division of the National Service Department as its administrative secretariat, to coordinate activities of the various departments and organizations. Late in 1943 it was announced that staffs of the Rehabilitation Board and the Rehabilitation Division of the National Service Department were to be merged on November 1 into a new Department of Rehabilitation, which would assume the general administration of all rehabilitation measures. The exact administrative organization is not clear; the department was criticized in May 1944 by the Returned Services' Association, which stated that there could be no progress unless the Minister had his own department, with an appropriation of funds for carrying out its functions. The Minister of Rehabilitation, it was stated, should be given full charge of the administration of the act and the Minister, who at that time was also Minister of Forestry and Lands, should hold only the Rehabilitation portfolio.

¹ Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), February 1942, December 1943, and February 1944; International Labor Office, Legislative Series 1941; The Standard (official organ of the New Zealand labor movement, Wellington), January 14, March 4, June 10, July 1, September 2 and 9, and November 18, 1943, and March 30, 1944; The New Zealand Railway Review (Wellington), November 6, 1942, and May 26, 1944; Foreign Commerce Weekly (U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington), March 4, 1944; reports from Raymond E. Cox, Basil D. Dahl, Carl E. Christopherson, and J. Jefferson Jones, III, United States Legation at Wellington; and certain confidential sources.

² For summary of reconstruction features of the act and of public attitudes on the question of State planning, see p. 70.

Discharge Benefits

Servicemen are entitled on discharge to 28 days' leave with pay. They are provided with free transportation home, including meals, and receive a free railroad pass for 28 days, usable anywhere in the Dominion. A clothing allowance is given each discharged serviceman, ranging from £10³ for 6 months' service to £25 for 12 months or more. Local rehabilitation officers are informed of employment particulars based on an employment interview given, before discharge, to each serviceman by a representative of the Rehabilitation Division. The local officers contact ex-servicemen, and help them to obtain suitable employment offering good long-term prospects. To provide for demobilized men who receive neither service pay nor a pension, and who are unfit to take ordinary employment or cannot be suitably placed at once, the Government introduced a system of rehabilitation allowances. The basic rate of the allowance is £3 10s. plus dependents' allowances up to a maximum of £6 weekly. Such an allowance is payable up to 13 weeks.

Reinstatement in Civil Employment

Occupational reestablishment regulations passed in 1940 provide for reinstatement of veterans, previously engaged in private employment, in their pre-service jobs. "It shall be the duty of every employer by whom, or by the predecessor of whom in the relation of employer, a serving employee was employed for at least 4 weeks immediately prior to his offering himself for military service or to his being called up for military service" to reinstate him in employment not less favorable than he would have had if he had not entered the service. Even if injury prevents the ex-serviceman from performing his former work, the employer is under obligation to offer suitable employment. A reinstated employee is not to be dismissed within 6 months after employment. Request for reinstatement must be made before the end of 1 month after discharge in New Zealand or before 6 months after discharge overseas, or during any period of leave without pay from military service; the employee must present himself for work at the time and place designated by the employer.

Reinstatement is not required if it is not "reasonably practicable" to do so, or if reinstatement in the veteran's previous job is impracticable and he refuses the offer of the most favorable position practicable. If employees have successively replaced other employees going into the armed forces, the right to reinstatement is held in the order in which the individuals started to render military service; once an employee has been reinstated in that position, the right of the others to reinstatement lapses. Any employer failing to reinstate ex-service men or discharging them in violation of the regulations may be ordered by the court, in addition to any other penalty which may be imposed, to give the employee a sum not exceeding 12 weeks' remuneration, or pay for the period of leave without pay from military service, at the rate last payable to the veteran when previously employed.

Reinstatement is also available to Government workers. When former employees of the New Zealand Public Service who have served

* Average exchange rate of New Zealand pound in 1944—\$3.24.

in the armed forces are demobilized, they are automatically reinstated in the Service at the grade and salary level that they would have attained had they been continuously employed. While they are in the armed forces, the Government pays their superannuation contribution.

Training and Education

The Vocational Guidance Service of the Education Department was recently reorganized to meet the request of the Rehabilitation Board for adequate guidance for demobilized men and women. Full-time guidance officers are stationed in the larger centers, and special arrangements are being made for the appointment of part-time guidance officers in secondary centers. The officers cooperate with the Rehabilitation Service to insure that ex-service personnel undertake courses with the benefit of expert advice.

If training is necessary, the serviceman may acquire it in one of the plants, farms, or trade schools operated by the Government to teach war veterans new skills. Trade training is available to all ex-service men who have not been previously engaged in a skilled trade or completed training in such a trade, or who are prevented by a service-connected disability from resuming their pre-service trade. Other veterans may be included at the discretion of the Rehabilitation Board. During training, payments are made to cover reasonable expenses (for transportation, meals, etc.) incurred in reporting for a selection interview, in proceeding to training, and in going to the first job after training. Loans to assist the men in procuring tools are also available.

Steps have been taken to convert the Auxiliary Workers' Training Scheme from the training of war workers to the training of demobilized servicemen. The wartime emergency character of the training has given way to longer-term training, with the object of equipping ex-servicemen to hold their own in their trades for the rest of their working lives. Some returned veterans have already undergone training for the engineering, building, and footwear manufacturing trades and have been placed in jobs. Plans are being considered to intensify the scheme and to extend it to other trades.

Training is carried on in two ways. An individual may attend a full-time course in a Government training center or trade school or at a technical college, with or without a subsequent period of "improvership." Such men may be trained for up to 12 months, followed by up to 2 years of improvership. They are paid by the training organization at a rate of £5 5s. for the first 32 weeks, £5 7s. 6d. for the rest of the first year, and regular advances semiannually up to £6 for the sixth half-year. The alternative method is on-the-job training, during which the ex-serviceman is placed with a private employer, who is paid an agreed wage subsidy during the training period. Such veterans are trained for a maximum period of 3 years and are paid the same rates as those in the trade-school training just described. Government subsidies range from £2 12s. 6d. for the trainee's first 8 months to no subsidy at all for the third year. Ex-servicemen trainees must agree to remain at least 3 years in the industry in which training has been given. Intensive courses in farm management, etc., are provided, including tuition for attendance at farm colleges or instruction centers. Short courses are also available to make a veteran immediately useful

to a farmer employer or the Lands Department, and instruction can be had for a person taking up farming on his own account.

If trade apprenticeships are revived, the weekly pay is subsidized, in order to provide a living wage. Apprentices also get credit for any training they have received in the armed forces.

Demobilized men and women whose education was interrupted by the war and who wish to continue it are also assisted. All existing technical and correspondence school facilities are available to them free of charge. Also provided are scholarships for "post-primary" and university education; postgraduate scholarships of £250 a year for up to 3 years; full tuition in medicine and dentistry, plus living expenses up to £5 5s. weekly, and cost of books, fees, and other items; grants to cover the cost of books for approved non-university courses; and various other special allowances for ex-servicemen and their children, such as for books, instruments, fees, and materials. To be eligible for these grants, the ex-service men or women must have served for at least 12 months and must apply for aid within 3 years of discharge. Students placed in postgraduate and medical and dental courses may be subject to Government service for 3 years after completing their training.

Assistance in Establishing a Business Enterprise

Loans up to £500 (or more in special cases) are authorized for the establishment of ex-servicemen in businesses, as well as interest-free loans for the purchase of trade tools.

For servicemen desiring to acquire farms, advances are available up to 100 percent of valuation (calculated on a productive basis), and varying up to £6,250 for land and stock. No grant is to be made, of course, if it does not appear that the person could make a living from the establishment.

In connection with land-settlement measures, attempts are being made to avoid the situation which occurred following World War I, when prices paid for land for discharged soldiers were excessively high, thereby placing heavy debt burdens on resettled soldiers. The Servicemen's Settlement and Land Sales Act, effective October 18, 1943, definitely safeguards the returned serviceman against exploitation when buying his own house or farm. By definition it is "An act to provide for the acquisition of land for the settlement of discharged servicemen; and to provide for the control of sales and leases of land in order to facilitate the settlement of discharged servicemen and to prevent undue increases in the price of land, the undue aggregation of land, and its use for speculative or uneconomic purposes." * * * All transactions on or after October 18, 1943, in privately owned land, both rural and urban, by sale or lease for not less than 3 years, are to be subject to the jurisdiction of a Land Sales Court and its subsidiary committees. The Government is also empowered to take compulsorily any farm land capable of subdivision into two or more holdings for discharged servicemen, with the provision that the land of any serviceman serving outside of New Zealand is exempt. The subsidiary committees are to fix the basic value of land, which is the maximum allowed when land is sold, leased, or acquired compulsorily for the settlement of servicemen. The period of operation of the act is limited to 5 years after the war ends. Considerable controversy

took place over its passage, and various groups still fear the results of so sweeping an enactment. Numerous editorials have pointed out the possibility of such an emergency wartime control becoming permanent policy, with an uncertain future for the private ownership of property.

Housing Provisions

Fifty percent of the State rental houses and flats coming available are allocated to returned servicemen, widows of servicemen who died overseas, and wives of war prisoners. Loans up to £1,500 are provided for the erection or acquisition of houses. Provision is also made for rural housing, and for the purchase of furniture. In addition, an ex-serviceman wishing to buy or build a house or to purchase a farm property can obtain a supplementary loan after contributing as much as possible from his cash resources. The difference between the normal Government lending limit and the price approved by the land sales committee will thus be covered. Such supplements have been found necessary because in many cases the total authorized loan of 100 percent of the normal lending value is insufficient to enable an ex-serviceman to complete the transaction, for frequently sales prices fixed by land sales committees exceed the loan value. The supplementary loan will be secured by mortgage, but no interest will be charged, and, in addition, no repayment of the principal will be required unless the house is sold or transferred. If the individual has to move because of sickness or transfer, the Government will take charge and will transfer the property to another ex-serviceman, paying the outgoing man the amount of his equity.

Special Provisions for Disabled Servicemen

If a man is unfit for military service, his army pay and allowances are payable until his case is dealt with either by the Rehabilitation Board or by the War Pensions Department. These payments continue during the period when he is still undergoing either in-patient or out-patient hospital treatment, but are discontinued if the individual is considered fit for employment or seeks his own discharge. Hospital care is provided for all wounded. Handicapped veterans (including those who served in the merchant marine) receive disability pensions. If, before being granted a pension, the discharged person receives rehabilitation allowances which are smaller than the pension he eventually is given, he is paid the difference. Formerly, in granting pensions, the onus was on the claimant to prove that his disability was unquestionably the result of his military service; recently this was changed to give the serviceman the benefit of any doubt. War pensions may be supplemented by "economic pensions" in cases where the addition is justifiable, considering the means of the claimant and his ability to engage in suitable employment; such pensions may be granted to a disabled member, his widow, or his or her widowed mother.

Totally disabled unemployables are the special care of the Disabled Servicemen's Civil Reestablishment League, which has been appointed the Government's agent and has undertaken their training and employment at standard rates of pay. The League receives an annual Government grant. The seriously disabled are thus transferred to the

care of the League, although, if they subsequently become suitable for normal employment, they are returned to ordinary industry. The League is responsible for providing suitable training and recreational centers for disabled ex-service personnel. Modern occupational centers are being built at all main centers for training disabled men. The first of these was opened in September 1943. In these centers, vocational training and social adjustment of the men are to be combined. Employment and training are now being provided by the League in cabinetmaking, wood and leather work, manufacture of basket ware, sea-grass furniture, household mops and dusters, perambulators, sheep-skin rugs, jewelry, and suede work, etc. Plans are being made to provide training in shoe repairing, clog making, and the manufacture of surgical boots and splints. During the period of vocational training at the centers, the disabled men are to receive rates of pay of £5 5s. a week, in addition to any pension they may have.

The Rehabilitation Board has authorized negotiation with local bodies and other approved authorities for the subsidized employment of men on light recuperative work. One such scheme is already in effect and others will be started as needed.

Particular attention has been given to providing suitable long-term, as well as recuperative, employment to the disabled men. The first report of the Rehabilitation Board pointed out that, if an effort is made, industry can absorb large numbers of disabled men and that it is important to place these men in permanent worth-while jobs. The Board undertook a survey of industry to ascertain openings most suited to variously disabled men. On completion of the survey, employers will be urged to reserve for them, where possible, jobs that they can perform. A special survey of this kind was also to be made of positions in Government service, with a view to giving disabled veterans special consideration.

Post-War Reconstruction

Reconstruction Policies in New Zealand¹

NEW ZEALAND is formulating broad reconstruction policies for the post-war period, in addition to the specific provisions made for the benefit of ex-servicemen.² Reconstruction measures taken by late 1944 were largely of an administrative character. The questions of employment opportunities, the extent of State control to be exercised following the war, and the amount and form of industrialization to be retained were widely discussed.

Administration

The second half of the Rehabilitation Act, promulgated on October 17, 1941, deals with the question of post-war reconstruction. The purpose of this part of the act is "to insure that primary and secondary industries are converted to a peacetime basis with the least possible interference with the welfare of the persons engaged or employed therein." The act provides for the establishment of a special Reconstruction Account, into which public funds for industrial reconstruction are to be placed and out of which all funds spent in connection with this part of the act are to be paid. In addition, it enables the Minister of Finance to cancel contracts at any time after the cessation of hostilities; to compensate firms injured by such termination; and to grant loans to employers engaged in war work for the purpose of hastening the conversion of their businesses to peacetime activity, purchase shares in their enterprises, or buy all or part of their output. These last-mentioned means also may be used by the Minister to establish new, or extend existing, industries, and he can arrange to supply raw materials, machinery, and other equipment. Finally, the Government is empowered to require an employer in a war industry to continue employing, for a specified period, all persons working for him or specified numbers or classes of workers, such as returned soldiers. A subsidy may be granted to the employer to protect him from financial loss incurred in complying with the requirements.

In May 1944, the Acting Prime Minister announced that an agency to be known as the Organization for National Development was to be established by the Government. This body is to examine and coordinate proposals from all sources relating to post-war prob-

¹ Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), February 1942, December 1943, and February 1944; International Labor Office, Legislative Series 1941; The Standard (official organ of the New Zealand labor movement, Wellington), January 14, March 4, June 10, July 1, September 2 and 9, and November 18, 1943, and March 30, 1944; The New Zealand Railway Review (Wellington), November 6, 1942, and May 26, 1944; Foreign Commerce Weekly (U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington), March 4, 1944; reports from Raymond E. Cox, Basil D. Dahl, Carl E. Christopherson, and J. Jefferson Jones, III, United States Legation at Wellington; and certain confidential sources.

² For summary of rehabilitation measures taken for the servicemen, see p. 64.

lems, and evolve one composite national plan for the consideration of the Government. The Organization is under the direct control of the Prime Minister, with a special Cabinet committee of the Ministers primarily concerned, and specially qualified officers drawn from Government departments are utilized. Combined committees of Government officers and representatives of outside organizations have been established to deal with various aspects of the national development. The Organization's first task was stated to be the restoration of industry to a peacetime basis.

The Government program for transition from war to peace, and for reconstruction, was advanced considerably by the passage in March 1943 of an act to establish the Ministry of Works, amalgamating the Public Works Department and the Housing Department. The Minister of Public Works became the Minister of Works. Appointment of a Commissioner of Works and a deputy was authorized. Under the act, the Minister is responsible for all public capital construction, including housing; the Council of Works is to act as an advisory and consultative agency, whose chief objectives are to coordinate all forms of construction, private as well as public, and to keep in touch with relevant technical developments.

Employment Opportunities

While endeavoring to time and control public investment in order to prevent slumps, the Government will try to regulate the rate and volume of private investment in manufacturing establishments. Many factories are in need of repairs and remodeling, as well as new machinery and equipment, and construction of new factories is to be expected. In its first report, the Rehabilitation Board stated, with regard to providing employment, that a survey had been made of industry to see which industries will require additions to their labor force. The building industry is important, but certain others are expected to expand considerably after the war; among these is engineering, which it is anticipated will play an important part in industrial reconstruction and will provide employment for the thousands of men gaining engineering experience in the forces.

The Government expects to employ immediately, on national development projects, at least half the men demobilized when the war ends. The Board reported a survey to make possible the formulation of a long-range schedule of necessary works. Although the projects planned are an integral part of the Board's post-war employment policy, they are regarded not as relief projects but as "essential steps to the maintenance and utilization of the natural resources that will be required to support the industrial program of reconstruction, and with it the increased manufacture of consumption goods." The hydro-electric program occupies a very important position on the works schedule and the Government is committed to an ambitious State house-building program—16,000 houses per year.

Place of Government Control

Late in 1943, the Minister of Rehabilitation stated that all types of industry must "plan their own reconstruction in the post-war period." However, the above-described measures indicate that the Government expects to exert considerable control over employment. Since 1935, when the Labor Government came into power, increasing

State control over industry has taken place. The question of the extent of post-war Government activity is at present the subject of a great deal of controversy in New Zealand.

In general, labor and management agree that many wartime stabilization controls must be maintained in the immediate transition period following the war. Labor, however, feels that short-term transition problems will differ considerably from the long-term problems of the reconstruction period proper. In addition to guaranteeing servicemen and their dependents freedom from want, the Labor Government accepts the responsibility for housing, clothing, and feeding the New Zealand people, plans to broaden social-security provisions until every phase of home and family life is secure, and pledges full employment, guaranteeing the right to work at a decent wage (a minimum family income) to every worker. The Government Rehabilitation Board has stated that an appropriate system of controls over industry, finance, and distribution will be necessary. Labor considers the principle of *laissez faire* to be obsolete and bases all its plans on conscious control and planning, with the State playing a major part. The railway workers' organ states:

It is realized that there cannot be any changes while private ownership controls the means of life, * * * the worker and soldier of today * * * have no need to apologize for demanding that the means of production and distribution and other services should be socially owned.

Opponents of the Labor Government, on the other hand, feel that Government controls should gradually be lifted after the war, and in recent months such organizations as the Manufacturers' Federation and the Associated Chambers of Commerce have demanded the removal of emergency controls which are no longer necessary. The groups vary on the extent to which the economy should be freed from Government control. The Associated Chambers of Commerce has emphasized its firm belief that no agency other than private enterprise could hope to provide full opportunities for returning servicemen or to lay a sound foundation for the economic future of the Dominion. Certain persons holding that view recognize, however, the desirability of collaboration between the State and private enterprise with the object of promoting efficiency. Other elements of the employer group accept the fact that the competitive system is being progressively superseded by State control of production and marketing. The retiring president of the Auckland Chamber of Commerce in early 1943 stated that the conflicting concepts of State control and private enterprise need not be irreconcilable and that, although rigidity of State management has hampered business management, a certain measure of State action in commerce and industry must be accepted.³ The Manufacturers' Federation recognizes also that there is a place for Government action. Commenting on the proposed Organization for National Development, the President of the Federation said, "it must be realized that there is an imperative need for some strong and unbiased central organization, charged with the responsibility of keeping the balance among all the various interests involved. This central authority, too, must be responsible for the coordinated tapering-off of post-war economic controls."

An issue which has recently been extremely controversial and which exemplifies to a certain extent the question of State control

³ The method advocated is establishment of joint production councils representing employers and employees in the various industries; such councils would provide the Government with a responsible point of contact.

is the licensing of industry. The Industrial Efficiency Act was passed in 1936, with the stated purpose of achieving a planned economy through rationalization and control of industry. Under the act, the Bureau of Industry—appointed by the Minister of Industries and Commerce—controls the licensing of a number of the Dominion's industries. The measure has been widely criticized as restrictive. For example, the Associated Chambers of Commerce stated that the act was a hindrance to the reestablishment of servicemen. In cases where industries are licensed, returned servicemen are given preference, but a number of ex-servicemen have been prevented from establishing their own businesses, not because they did not have the necessary qualifications but because in the opinion of the licensing authority there was no room for them in their chosen fields.

Also fundamental to the general reconstruction policy of the country is the question whether New Zealand is to have a self-sufficient economy or is to resume its pre-war position as a producer and an exporter of agricultural products. The Government is planning on continued expansion of secondary as well as primary industries.



Government Encouragement of Post-War Industrial Expansion in Federal District, Mexico¹

IN PREPARATION for production problems that will arise in Mexico in the post-war period, President Avila Camacho recently issued a decree to encourage industrial development in the Federal District.² The decree recognizes that it is necessary to channel capital into the establishment of industries and also to obtain the cooperation of private initiative with the Bureau of the Federal District.

That Bureau, according to the decree, is to determine what industries or activities are to be considered new or necessary, in accordance with the current economic conditions. Furthermore, it is directed to take measures necessary to provide that enterprises or persons interested in creating new industries can acquire land at low cost; to construct at public expense the principal means of communication to the industrial zones where new industries may be established; and to create a special office for study of problems relating to the establishment of new industries. The Bureau is to organize the industrialists so that they may participate in the general plan of industrialization.

Industrialists who wish to avail themselves of the provisions of the law are to enjoy various privileges and exemptions, for periods varying in length from 2 to 10 years. Thus, they are to be exempted from paying taxes for transfer of property within the industrial zones and for registry of contracts in the Public Register of Property, and they are to be required to pay only 10 percent of the established tax quotas. The tax rate on rural and urban property is to be only one-tenth of 1 percent of the value of the land. Furthermore, these industries are to enjoy exemption from taxes on mercantile and industrial activities and on capital invested; and are to be allowed, for 5 years, other exemptions, including import duties on machinery for new factories and on raw and semiprocessed materials not produced in Mexico, all export duties, certain income taxes, stamp taxes, and the Federal levy.

¹ Data are from *El Popular* (Mexico, D. F.), August 30, 1944, pp. 1-2; and *Diario Oficial*, May 13, 1941, Section 1, pp. 1-4.

² Consisting principally of Mexico City.

Employment Conditions

Distribution of Manpower in Great Britain, 1939-44

IN Great Britain the total number of men aged 14 to 64 years and women aged 14 to 59 years in the armed forces, in civil-defense work, and in industrial employment rose from 18½ million in June 1939 to 22 million in June 1944, according to a White Paper issued by the British Government.¹ In these age groups, 93.6 percent of the men and 44.4 percent of the women were mobilized. The increase of nearly one-fifth represented a reduction in the number of unemployed by 1¼ million, to 102,000, and a net addition to the labor force of 2½ million persons who were not previously in industrial employment. In computing the manpower totals, two women working part time were counted as one full-time worker. If each woman working part time had been counted as a full-time worker, and if male and female workers had been included regardless of age, the increase in the number in the services and industrial employment between 1939 and 1944 would have amounted to 4½ million.

The 22 million males and females of working age (14 to 64 years for males and 14 to 59 years for females) who were in the forces or at work in June 1944 were distributed as follows: 10.3 million, or 47 percent, were engaged in the Services or full-time civil defense, or were employed in engineering or other industries mainly concerned with the output of munitions; 5.7 million, or 26 percent, were in agriculture, mining, and other industries which it was necessary to maintain or expand during the war; and 6 million, or 27 percent, were engaged in building and civil engineering, textile, clothing, and other manufacturing industries, the distributive trades, and civilian services. Statistics in the accompanying table show the allocation of manpower, by sex and occupational group, as of June, in the 3 years 1939, 1942, and 1944.

Of the 7.6 million persons engaged in all manufacturing industries other than mining during June 1944, 76 percent were in Government work, 20 percent in work for the home market, and 4 percent in production of goods for export. In 1938, production for export occupied 15 percent of persons in manufacturing industries (excluding mining).

Mobilization in the present war has been more complete than in the period 1914-18, according to the White Paper. The peak in number of men and women in the forces or in industrial employment was reached near the end of 1943. However, that level could not be maintained because of the loss of men who became casualties or were invalidated out of the armed forces and were unable to take up industrial employment, and because of women leaving industry for domestic reasons. In the armed forces alone the total strength has been in-

¹ Statistics Relating to the War Effort of the United Kingdom. London, 1944. (Cmd. 6564.)

creased each year in spite of casualties. Losses in the services during the first 5 years of the war totaled 563,000 for the United Kingdom.¹ Of merchant seamen, 29,629 were killed in action at sea and 4,173 were interned by the enemy.² Civilian casualties from the beginning of the war in 1939 to August 31, 1944, aggregated 136,116 persons, of whom 57,298 were killed.

Distribution of Manpower in Great Britain in June of 1939, 1942, and 1944

Industry and service	Males aged 14 to 64 years				Females aged 14 to 59 years				
	June 1939		June 1942		June 1944		June 1939		
	Number (in thousands)	Percent of total population	Number (in thousands)	Percent of total population	Number (in thousands)	Percent of total population	Number (in thousands)	Percent of total population	
Total population	16,010	100.0	15,934	15,910	100.0	16,040	100.0	16,020	100.0
Armed and auxiliary forces, civil defense, and industry	13,643	85.1	15,081	14,896	93.6	4,837	30.1	6,889	7,120
Unemployed	1,043	6.5	103	71	.4	302	1.9	59	31
Remainder ²	1,324	8.4	750	943	6.0	10,901	68.0	9,082	8,869
Armed and auxiliary forces	477	3.0	3,785	4,502	28.3	-----	-----	307	467
Civil defense	80	.5	304	225	1.4	-----	-----	80	56
Industry, group I	2,600	16.2	3,285	3,210	20.2	506	3.1	1,705	1,851
Metals and chemicals ³	2,600	16.2	3,285	3,210	20.2	506	3.1	1,705	1,851
Industry, group II	4,688	29.2	4,154	4,059	25.5	852	5.3	1,496	1,644
Agriculture, horticulture, etc.	1,046	6.5	949	948	6.0	67	.4	138	184
Mining	868	5.4	811	802	5.0	5	-----	12	13
National government services	416	2.6	488	520	3.3	123	.8	418	495
Local government services	520	3.2	375	322	2.0	326	2.0	447	468
Gas, water, and electricity supply	225	1.4	182	160	1.0	17	.1	32	32
Transport, shipping, and fishing	1,222	7.6	1,052	1,038	6.5	51	.3	179	212
Food, drink, and tobacco	391	2.5	297	269	1.7	263	1.7	270	240
Industry, group III	5,798	36.2	3,553	2,900	18.2	3,479	21.7	3,301	3,102
Building and civil engineering	1,294	8.1	864	600	3.8	16	.1	29	23
Textiles	401	2.5	259	221	1.4	601	3.8	464	405
Clothing	138	.9	81	65	.4	449	2.8	343	284
Boots and shoes	108	.7	74	64	.4	57	.4	52	43
Other manufactures ⁴	1,004	6.2	618	542	3.4	440	2.7	417	414
Distributive trades	1,888	11.8	1,140	972	6.1	999	6.2	1,033	956
Other services ⁵	965	6.0	517	436	2.7	917	5.7	963	977

¹ Two part-time women workers are counted as one unit. In mid-1944, approximately 900,000 women were performing part-time work.

² Mainly housewives; domestic workers are also included.

³ Metal manufacture, engineering, motors, aircraft, and other vehicles, shipbuilding and ship repairing, metal-goods manufacture, chemicals, explosives, oil, etc., industries.

⁴ Leather, wood, paper, bricks, tiles, pottery, glass, and miscellaneous manufactures.

⁵ Commerce, banking, insurance, finance; professional services; entertainment; hotels, restaurants, etc.; laundries and cleaning.



Industrial Distribution of Population in Guatemala, 1940³

THE population of Guatemala, according to the Census of 1940, was 3,283,209, with 1,846,977 listed as gainfully occupied. This latter group was composed of 919,713 males (55 percent of the 1,660,048

¹ The total covers killed, missing, wounded, and prisoners of war.

² Figures exclude the number who were wounded or injured.

³ Data are from Guatemala, Quinto Censo General de Población Levantado el 7 de Abril de 1940 (Guatemala, C. A., June 1942).

male population) and 927,264 females (57 percent of the female population of 1,623,161).

Agriculture accounted for 42.1 percent of all active population (83.8 percent of the males and 0.8 percent of the females). The category, "domestic service" (which included, besides house servants, the housewives, launderers, hairdressers, barbers, etc.), totaled 846,013, of whom 838,101 were women. Women outnumbered men also in the tobacco, ceramics, food, clothing, and textiles industries. The largest number of males, other than those in agriculture, occurred in commerce (table 1).

TABLE 1.—*Industrial Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Population of Guatemala, According to Census of 1940*

Industry	Total	Males	Females	Industry	Total	Males	Females
All industries.....	1,846,977	919,713	927,264	Hides and skins.....	8,061	7,962	99
Agriculture.....	777,500	770,340	7,169	Tobacco.....	1,410	245	1,165
Alcoholic beverages.....	223	164	59	Textiles.....	29,830	14,281	15,549
Food industries.....	37,361	7,230	30,131	Printing, etc.....	1,120	1,009	111
Ceramics.....	3,595	669	2,926	Domestic service ¹	846,013	7,912	838,101
Clothing.....	18,547	7,958	10,589	Commerce.....	34,045	28,713	5,332
Building and decorative.....	12,853	12,792	61	Transportation.....	5,517	5,410	107
Woodworking.....	15,012	14,977	35	Liberal professions.....	2,145	1,522	623
Metals.....	8,090	8,087	3	Religion.....	399	291	108
				Miscellaneous.....	45,247	30,151	15,096

¹ Included (besides house servants) housewives, launderers, hairdressers, barbers, and others.

Some of the larger occupational groups within the industries are indicated in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution, by Sex, in Principal Occupation Groups in Guatemala, According to Census of 1940*

Occupation	Total	Males	Females	Occupation	Total	Males	Females
All occupations.....	1,017,428	865,414	152,014	Carpenters, cabinet-makers.....	10,902	10,902	-----
Farmers.....	150,331	149,341	990	Blacksmiths, mechanics.....	6,881	6,881	-----
Farm day laborers.....	625,976	619,797	6,179	Shoemakers.....	6,106	6,072	34
Bakers, pastry makers.....	4,614	3,728	886	Weavers.....	29,659	14,138	15,521
Tortilla makers.....	27,349	-----	27,349	Domestic servants ¹	86,589	5,578	81,011
Dressmakers, embroiderers, milliners.....	8,896	-----	8,896	Merchants.....	31,686	27,283	4,403
Tailors.....	6,383	6,359	24	School teachers.....	5,059	1,976	3,083
Masons.....	9,282	9,282	-----	Students.....	7,715	4,077	3,638

¹ Not including housewives, launderers, hairdressers, barbers, and others.



Employment and Wages in Peru, 1940–42¹

FORTY percent of the 6,207,967 population enumerated in Peru in the Census of 1940 was classified as economically active.² Agriculture (including subsistence agriculture) accounted for 52.2 percent of the occupied population; manufacturing industries (including home

¹ Data are from report of Frederick W. Hinke, United States Embassy at Lima, November 19, 1943 (No. 553); and Extracto Estadístico del Perú, 1942 (Dirección Nacional de Estadística, Ministerio de Hacienda y Comercio, Lima, 1944).

² The Census showed a grand total of 7,023,111 population, including, in addition to the 6,207,967 enumerated, 465,144 "calculated population" and 350,000 "estimated forest population."

manufactures) for 15.4 percent; livestock, fishing, hunting, and forestry for 10.2 percent; and professions and domestic and personal services for 6.7 percent. Building, construction, and repairs provided occupation for 1.8 percent of those working, and mining and other extractive industries for 1.7 percent.

Table 1 gives, by sex groups, the number employed in 9 different fields of industry in Peru in 1940.

TABLE 1.—*Industrial Distribution of Enumerated Working Population in Peru, 1940*

Industry	Total	Males	Females
All industries	2,475,339	1,508,321	877,018
Agriculture	1,293,214	931,468	361,746
Livestock, fishing, and forestry	252,975	129,008	123,967
Mining and other extractive industries	44,694	43,463	1,231
Manufacturing industries	380,281	165,516	214,765
Transportation and communications	51,079	48,656	2,423
Commerce, banking, and insurance	112,126	70,025	36,101
Public administration and other public services	89,021	72,514	16,507
Professions, domestic and personal services	165,099	53,879	111,220
Building, construction, and repairs	45,659	44,782	877
Other	41,191	33,010	8,181

The basis of the economy of Peru has been described as a self-sufficient subsistence agriculture (supplemented by home industries) in which the major portion of the gainfully employed population is occupied. Thus, though the population classified as agricultural in the table above made up more than one-half of all the enumerated economically active, it was reported that scarcely 150,000 were engaged in the production of agricultural crops for export. Those so engaged were mainly on the coast, where 31 percent of the agricultural workers produced largely for export, as opposed to only 12 percent of the entire agricultural population enumerated in the three areas—the coast, the sierra (the high range of the Andes), and the eastern mountain slopes and lowlands beyond.

Twenty-eight percent of the working force in agriculture was female, as contrasted with 35.4 percent of all the economically active. In livestock, fishing, and forestry, on the other hand, women supplied 49.0 percent of the workers.

Employment in manufacturing industries.—The population listed in the census of 1940 as engaged in manufacturing amounted to 380,281, or less than a sixth of all the economically active in Peru. More than half of the workers in manufacturing were classified in textiles. The clothing, wood, food, and metal industries accounted for proportions of the total which ranged from 23.7 percent to 3.9 percent.

Under the term "industrial population" (covering those classified as being in the manufacturing industries) were included persons engaged in home industries, and, apparently, persons producing almost entirely for home consumption—for instance, the wool spinners in the sierra region. This may partially explain the fact that 56.5 percent of the total employment in the manufacturing industries was listed as female. In the textile industry alone, the proportion was higher—83.0 percent.

The manufacturing industries, narrowly speaking, are reported to be growing gradually in response to expanding domestic needs. Not more than 50,000 persons, it was stated, were working in manufactur-

ing plants in 1944. In 1940 Peru's 42 textile mills employed 9,905 persons.

The comparatively small numbers in cotton and woolen textiles (62,196), and the large size of the group listed under unclassified textiles (113,453) again indicate that the majority of the people engaged in the production of textiles were employed as home workers. Detail from the census shows, in support of this statement, that textile workers were concentrated to a large degree in the sierra region, where homespun garments are worn.

In the clothing and allied industries, of 90,039 persons employed, 21,753 men were engaged in shoemaking and repairs; 15,354 men were tailors; 11,527 women were dressmakers; over 14,000 men and women were making hats and caps; 18,050 women were employed otherwise in the clothing trade. The majority of all these workers operated in small shops using hand equipment.

Employment and wages in the mineral industries.—In the early 1940's the mineral industries of Peru employed less than 2 percent of all the economically active persons. The working force increased 16.5 percent from 1940 to 1941, but dropped 20.6 percent in 1942.

Table 2 shows the employment and wages and salaries paid in the mineral industry for the years 1940–42.

Metal mining accounted for over half of all employment in the mineral industries in 1940 and 1942; in 1941 it provided 68.8 percent of all and showed an increase of 51.6 percent over 1940. The petroleum industry formed the second largest group of workers in the mineral industries. Both working force and wage and salary payments in petroleum grew slightly each year.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Wages in the Mineral Industries of Peru, 1940–42*

Mineral industry	Employment			Wages (and salaries)—in soles ¹		
	1940	1941	1942	1940	1941	1942
All branches	36,542	42,568	33,806	46,697,650	45,926,468	52,326,860
Metal mines	19,308	29,267	17,022	20,391,439	24,317,671	21,706,541
Processing plants	7,305	3,376	6,534	9,667,368	4,213,072	10,823,578
Petroleum	7,357	7,583	7,860	13,489,683	14,081,715	15,719,552
Other	2,572	2,337	2,300	3,149,160	3,314,010	4,077,189

¹ Average exchange rate of sol in 1940 and 1942=15 cents.

Total wage and salary payments for the mineral industries declined slightly between 1940 and 1941, but showed an increase of 13.9 percent in 1942 over the previous year. The petroleum industry shows a consistent growth in such payments during the 3 years. Payments to the metal-mine workers fluctuated, dropping in 1942 with a sharp decrease in employment, in spite of an increase in the total wage payments in all mineral industries. However, these payments decreased only 10.7 percent from wages and salaries paid in 1941, although employment declined 41.8 percent. An indication of the division of payments between salaried employees and wage earners may be derived from the year 1941, when 1,854 (4.4 percent) of the 42,568 employed in the mineral industries consisted of salaried employees. That year salaried employees received 12,975,761 soles (28.3 percent) of the total payments of 45,926,468 soles.

Employment and wages on certain farm crops.—Peruvian records for agriculture for the years 1940 to 1942 show that annual employment in the raising of rice, wheat, and cotton averaged about 37,700, 133,700, and 106,500 respectively. Employment in the production of both wheat and cotton fell each year between 1940 and 1942. In 1941 the workers in each decreased about one-eighth. Employment in the raising of wheat (based on 1941-42 estimates) dropped by 71 percent in 1942 from the previous year, but that in cotton, by less than 3 percent. The number of workers employed in the production of rice increased more than a fifth between the years 1939-40 and 1940-41, but declined by an estimated 28 percent in the year 1941-42.

Table 3 shows the numbers of males and females employed and the daily wage rates for males and females in the production of rice, wheat, and cotton, 1939 to 1942.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Daily Wage Rates in Production of Rice, Wheat, and Cotton, in Peru, 1939-42*

Product and crop year	Employment			Daily wage rate	
	Total	Men	Women	Men	Women
Rice:					
1939-40	36,722	34,104	2,618	1.31	0.75
1940-41	44,450	41,676	2,774	1.41	.95
1941-42 (estimate)	31,909	30,130	1,869	1.92	1.27
Wheat:					
1940	188,144	79,926	108,218	.67	.33
1941	165,065	68,799	96,296	.81	.49
1942 (estimate)	47,861	26,541	21,320	.89	.62
Cotton:					
1939-40	117,726	102,626	15,100	1.23	.79
1940-41	102,273	89,878	12,395	1.76	1.02
1941-42 (estimate)	99,499	87,541	11,958	2.39	1.38

¹ Average exchange rate of sol in 1939=19 cents; in 1940 and 1942=15 cents.

Paid Vacations

Vacations With Pay in Selected Industries, 1943-44¹

Summary

VACATIONS with pay in American industry have become increasingly widespread during the past few years. Although the vacation movement has been gradually gaining in acceptance since the first World War, it is only in recent years that the practice of granting paid vacations has become common in many industries. While it is true that vacation allowances have been considered a prerogative of office workers for some time, the majority of industrial plant employees have gained this benefit only in the last few years. In manufacturing industries vacation plans now apply to about nine-tenths of the workers in unionized plants and to three-fourths of those in unorganized plants. In some of the nonmanufacturing industries the proportions are even higher.

Wide differences exist among the various vacation plans now in operation, especially in the liberality of these plans as between the different branches of manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industry. The length of the vacation ranges from a few days to several weeks. The right to any vacation with pay depends on a period of service with the company, which may be less than half a year or more than 5 years. Under some plans the length of vacation is graduated according to length of service; under other plans, there is a single provision for all who meet the minimum terms of eligibility.

The current interest of trade-unions in vacation provisions is well known, and the extension of such provisions has assumed a prominent place among union objectives. During the war period, in which wage increases have been controlled by the Government, one of the most important benefits that a union could obtain for its members has been a new or more liberal vacation arrangement. The National War Labor Board has been deeply concerned with the subject, and its general policy has been to permit the establishment, and sometimes the liberalization, of paid-vacation allowances. Specifically, the Board has usually approved vacations of 1 week after 1 year's service and 2 weeks after 5 years of service. Its recent award in the "Basic Steel" case is a notable example of this policy.²

Over 15,000 establishments and 4 million workers in a variety of important manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries in all

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Pamela Brown under the supervision of Margaret L. Plunkett. Tabulation of the statistical material was under the supervision of Ida E. Alpert. A special survey of paid-vacation provisions in union agreements, prepared by the Bureau's Division of Industrial Relations, will appear in the February 1944 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

Both articles will be reprinted, with supplementary material, in a forthcoming bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

² For "Basic Steel" decision, see p. 41 of this issue.

sections of the country were covered in a study, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, of vacations with pay in the war year of 1943. In this period 66 percent of the establishments reporting on plant employees and 86 percent of those reporting on office employees allowed these groups of workers some vacation with pay, after various specified periods of service. More than 3 million plant workers and over 430,000 office workers were found in these establishments, constituting 85 and 97 percent, respectively, of all such workers studied.

Paid vacations were more widespread and applied to somewhat higher proportions of workers in retail trade and the other selected nonmanufacturing industries that were studied than in the manufacturing groups as a whole. In individual manufacturing industries, however, particularly in some branches of metalworking, equally high proportions of workers were covered by paid-vacation plans.

One week's vacation after 1 year of service was the allowance most commonly provided for plant employees under both single- and graduated-type plans in all industries studied. Over 60 percent of all plant workers covered by some type of paid-vacation plan, however, could receive a maximum vacation of more than 1 week after meeting varying service requirements. Seventy-one percent of the workers covered by single-plan provisions received a week or less of paid vacation, generally after 1 year or less of service; another 25 percent were in plants providing 2 weeks' vacation. The same type of concentration applied to workers covered by graduated plans, 97 percent being found in plants allowing a minimum of up to 1 week after a specified minimum service period. Seventy-three percent of the workers in such plants, however, could receive up to 2 weeks' vacation, usually after longer periods of service. In two-thirds of the 10,000 plants granting paid vacations the single-type plan prevailed, but the majority of employees covered were found in establishments having some form of graduated-type plan.

Practically all the office workers studied (97 percent of the nearly 450,000 office workers for whom data were available) were covered by paid-vacation provisions. More of these employees were covered by graduated than by single-type plans. In single-type-plan establishments, 63 percent of the office employees received a 2 weeks' vacation with pay, usually after 1 year of service. Under graduated plans the majority had 1 week off with pay after less than a year's service and a maximum of 2 weeks after a longer period.

Scope of Study

SOURCE OF DATA

The wealth of material collected in connection with the Bureau's Nation-wide Occupational Wage-Rate Surveys in 1943 and 1944 provides a new opportunity for an analysis of provisions for vacations with pay in a broad cross section of American industry. Occupational wage-rate surveys of the major industries in all important cities have been made in the last 2 years, primarily to furnish the War Labor Board with necessary information for use in the setting of wage brackets. In addition to the wage and occupational information, however, these surveys also extended into related subjects in the field of working conditions and labor relations. Among data collected was infor-

mation on paid-vacation provisions in effect at the time these establishments were studied. As a result it is possible to summarize information on this subject as obtained from several thousand establishments in all sections of the country.

INDUSTRY AND AREA COVERAGE

Twenty-one major industry groups were selected for analysis in this study, 13 in manufacturing, and 8 in nonmanufacturing (table 1). The major manufacturing industries covered are in the broad fields of metalworking, foods, textiles, and printing; the major nonmanufacturing industries are retail trade, banking, metal mining, and power laundries. The manufacturing industries included are widely representative of that group, but some significant omissions in the nonmanufacturing industries should be noted. The only extractive industries for which data were available—crude-petroleum production and metal mining—obviously represent the mining groups to only a limited extent. The omission of the construction industry, which does not generally provide for paid vacations, and of certain services such as public utilities and transportation, also undoubtedly affects the results shown for the nonmanufacturing group. The results of the study are believed, nevertheless, to be generally significant for American industry as a whole at the beginning of 1944.

TABLE 1.—Number of Establishments and Employees Studied, by Industry Group, April 1943–April 1944

Industry group	Number of establish- ments	Number of employees		
		Total	Plant	Office
All selected industries	¹ 15,172	4,167,543	3,622,877	² 544,666
Selected manufacturing industries	11,047	3,665,159	3,220,998	444,161
Aircraft	100	1,152,326	903,735	188,591
Chemicals and allied products	673	94,281	78,770	15,511
Electrical machinery	593	380,028	326,490	53,538
Food and kindred products	2,527	286,043	261,409	24,634
Iron and steel products ³	1,374	364,118	333,836	30,282
Leather and leather products	368	57,815	55,126	2,689
Lumber and timber basic products	315	22,257	20,833	1,424
Machinery (except electrical)	2,022	477,873	421,388	56,485
Ordnance and accessories	432	406,629	368,340	38,289
Paper and allied products	605	65,527	60,265	5,262
Printing, publishing and allied industries	1,105	90,748	72,288	18,460
Smelting—nonferrous metals	111	29,155	27,018	2,137
Textile-mill products	822	238,339	231,500	6,859
Selected nonmanufacturing industries	¹ 4,125	502,384	401,879	100,505
Banking	649	54,206	—	54,206
Crude-petroleum production	155	14,133	8,521	5,612
Ferrous and nonferrous metal mining	314	73,987	70,824	3,163
Power laundries	724	56,455	53,177	3,278
Retail trade:				
Department stores	521	206,000	182,282	25,718
Dry goods stores	57	2,399	2,148	251
Women's ready-to-wear stores	566	30,490	27,033	3,457
Grocery stores	1,139	62,714	57,894	4,820

¹ Exceeds the number of establishments reporting for plant employees by the number of banking establishments, all of which are considered to have only office employees.

² Includes 97,887 office employees for whom definite information on paid-vacation provisions was not available. This total thus exceeds, by that number, the total of office employees for whom detailed information is shown in tables 2 and 10.

³ Includes iron and steel foundries, tin, wire, hand tools and hardware, sanitary ware, boiler shop, metal stamping and fabricated structural-metal products; excludes blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.

After selection of these significant industries for study, 83 important wage areas throughout the country were chosen as a basis for geographical representation. These areas covered 115 cities of 50,000 population and over (including most of the largest cities) as well as many towns of less than 50,000 population. A distribution of the establishments and employees covered, by major geographical region, is shown in table 2. Not all of the industries used in the present study are found in each of these selected wage areas, however, since in the occupational wage-rate studies on which this summary is based only those industries were scheduled which were most important in each individual area. Because of this variation in industry coverage from one area to another, no attempt has been made in the survey to apply weights in order to arrive at comprehensive Nation-wide figures.

TABLE 2.—*Geographic Distribution of Establishments and Employees Studied, by Type of Paid-Vacation Provision, April 1943–April 1944*

Class of employee and geographic region	Establishments				Employees covered			
	Total	With single plan	With graduated plan	With no provision	Total	By single plan	By graduated plan	No provision
Plant employees: All regions	14,523	6,388	3,249	4,886	3,622,877	1,177,389	1,891,346	554,142
Northeast	4,572	1,934	1,169	1,469	1,067,433	318,165	629,053	120,215
Southern and Border States	2,875	926	382	1,567	516,154	186,685	155,739	173,730
Middle West	5,433	2,533	1,431	1,469	1,631,515	419,607	969,331	242,577
Mountain and Pacific States	1,643	995	267	381	407,775	252,932	137,223	17,620
Office employees: All regions	10,809	6,847	2,523	1,499	446,779	192,770	240,170	13,839
Northeast	3,528	2,280	854	394	125,691	39,479	83,600	2,612
Southern and Border States	2,231	1,316	370	545	69,380	33,178	34,306	1,896
Middle West	3,886	2,413	1,125	348	203,099	79,252	116,810	7,037
Mountain and Pacific States	1,224	838	174	212	48,609	40,861	5,454	2,294

¹ Excludes 2,003 establishments reporting no office employees and 2,300 for which definite information on paid-vacation provisions for office employees was not available.

Since establishments usually have varying provisions for plant and office workers, the data have been tabulated separately for the two groups and are discussed in separate sections of this report. In general the term "plant employees" refers to maintenance, custodial, and processing workers and may be considered to cover much the same segment of industrial employees as the term "wage earners." All employees in banks have been classified as office employees.

Method of Analysis and Definition of Terms

Computation of vacation period.—Any study of paid vacations in wartime requires an important decision as to the treatment of the lengthened workweek. Since the beginning of the war the workweek in many industries has been extended far beyond the usual pre-war week of 40 hours. In some establishments it has risen to 70 hours. In attempting to interpret paid-vacation provisions for such a period, numerous difficulties are inevitably encountered in collating data for companies having widely varying workweeks. For purposes of this study, therefore, the length of the paid vacation allowed to plant employees has been related to the current prevailing workweek in each establishment, rather than to any standard agreement that may have

previously been in effect, and is equivalent to the number of workdays in a workweek under prevailing wartime conditions, paid for at no less than straight-time rates.

A simple example will suffice to illustrate the point. Suppose that a vacation plan, whether included in a union agreement or not, was drawn up when a plant was working on a 40-hour schedule, and that it provided for a week's vacation (40 hours) with pay. Later the plant shifted to a 48-hour schedule. The worker is still entitled under the agreement to take a full week's time off, but with pay for only the previously scheduled hours (e. g., 40 hours). The above situation is classified in the following analysis as providing only 5 days of vacation pay, rather than 1 week. Similarly, a 60-hour-week establishment providing 40 hours of paid vacation, is classified as having a 4-day vacation period. For statistical consistency, establishments currently having a 40-hour workweek and providing 40 hours of paid vacation have been considered 5-day-vacation establishments. Although in these establishments the vacation period is the same as the current workweek, the treatment given below avoids their classification in the same group as 48-hour establishments granting 48 hours or 6 days (1 week) of paid vacation. Establishments providing extra pay in lieu of vacation have been treated in the same manner as though time off were allowed, but allowances for additional days off without pay have not been regarded as the equivalent of paid vacation.

No vacation-period adjustment has been necessary in the data for office employees, since, in most establishments, office employees are paid on a weekly or monthly salary basis and receive their regular pay for vacation periods, regardless of the length of the workweek.

Service period.—The term "service period," as used in this study, represents the length of time an employee must have worked to become eligible for a specified paid vacation. It should be noted that for the service period designated as "1 year and less than 2 years" the greater number of plants fall at the lower end of the bracket, completion of 1 year of service being the most common requirement in the 1- to 2-year range.

Single and graduated plans.—Paid-vacation provisions may be divided into two general types—single or graduated plans. The "single" or "uniform" plan is one which provides a vacation of uniform length after a fixed minimum period of service but does not increase the length of vacation after additional years of service; for instance, in many establishments an employee becomes entitled to a week's vacation after a year's service, and his vacation allowance thereafter remains 1 week, regardless of the length of time he remains in the company's employ. The "graduated" plan, on the other hand, varies the length of vacation with length of service up to a fixed maximum so that, within limits, the longer an employee works in a given plant the more vacation days he is allowed; for example, an establishment may allow 5 days of paid vacation after 1 year of service and an additional day, up to a maximum of 10 days, for each subsequent year of service, the maximum vacation in this case being reached after 6 years of service. There are many variations, of course, in the amount of increase and required length of service leading up to whatever maximum vacation period is allowed. Frequently, a graduated plan provides for a single change from a minimum of 1 week to a maximum of 10 days or 2 weeks.

Vacation Provisions for Plant Employees

PROPORTION OF WORKERS RECEIVING PAID VACATIONS

Over 3½ million plant workers were employed in the establishments studied. Eighty-five percent of these workers, employed in two-thirds of the establishments, were eligible for paid vacations after some minimum service period (table 3).

TABLE 3.—*Existence of Paid-Vacation Provisions for Plant Employees, by Type of Industry and Unionization, April 1943–April 1944*

Type of industry and unionization	Establishments						Employees covered					
	Total		With paid-vacation provisions		With no provisions		Total		By paid-vacation provisions		No provisions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All selected industries	14,523	100	9,637	66	4,886	34	3,622,877	100	3,068,735	85	554,142	15
Manufacturing industries ¹	11,047	100	7,104	64	3,943	36	3,220,998	100	2,712,641	84	508,357	16
Union	4,892	100	3,994	82	898	18	2,344,873	100	2,065,836	88	279,037	12
Nonunion	6,058	100	3,058	51	3,000	49	865,441	100	637,708	74	227,733	26
Nonmanufacturing industries ¹	3,476	100	2,533	73	943	27	401,879	100	356,094	89	45,785	11
Union	926	100	842	91	84	9	181,575	100	174,986	96	6,589	4
Nonunion	2,524	100	1,667	66	857	34	216,274	100	177,116	82	39,158	18

¹ The manufacturing and nonmanufacturing subtotals include establishments and employees for which unionization was not reported. Therefore, the sum of union and nonunion figures in each group will not equal the group total. A grand total of 123 establishments and 14,714 employees could not be classified by union status.

In the particular nonmanufacturing industries studied, 73 percent of the establishments allowed vacations with pay, as compared with 64 percent of the manufacturing establishments. On the basis of workers rather than establishments, however, less variation was found between the two industry groups, 84 percent of the employees in manufacturing and 89 percent in the particular nonmanufacturing industries being covered by some form of vacation plan. That the larger establishments tend to be more liberal in providing paid vacations is apparent from the uniformly greater proportion of employees, as compared with establishments, covered by such provisions.

Considerable variation is observable also among individual industry groups; for example, 85 percent or more of all the workers in the metal-working industries studied, except iron and steel products, were employed in plants providing some type of vacation. Chemicals, food, and paper manufacture showed equally high proportions, while in leather and lumber less than half the workers were covered. Among those nonmanufacturing groups that were studied the most liberal industries were banking and retail trade, in which over 90 percent of the employees enjoyed vacation privileges. Only half of the laundry workers, on the other hand, received any time off with pay.

TYPE OF PAID-VACATION PROVISION

Single- rather than graduated-type plans were in effect in the majority of both the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments having paid-vacation provisions, but this type of plan appeared to be most common in the smaller plants, since only 38 percent of the covered workers studied were employed in plants having this type of provision (table 4). It is of interest to note that efforts to liberalize vacation plans frequently take the form of an attempt to change from the single to the graduated type of plan.

TABLE 4.—*Type of Paid-Vacation Plan for Plant Employees, by Type of Industry and Unionization, April 1943–April 1944*

Type of industry and unionization	Establishments having—						Employees covered by—					
	Paid-vacation provisions: Total		Single plan		Graduated plan		Paid-vacation provisions: Total		Single plan		Graduated plan	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All selected industries	9,637	100	6,388	66	3,249	34	3,068,735	100	1,177,389	38	1,891,346	62
Manufacturing industries ¹	7,104	100	4,744	67	2,360	33	2,712,641	100	1,037,481	38	1,675,160	62
Union	3,994	100	2,502	63	1,492	37	2,065,836	100	756,328	37	1,309,508	63
Nonunion	3,058	100	2,206	72	852	28	637,708	100	276,314	43	361,394	57
Nonmanufacturing industries ¹	2,533	100	1,644	65	889	35	356,094	100	130,908	39	216,186	61
Union	842	100	518	62	324	38	174,986	100	70,455	40	104,531	60
Nonunion	1,667	100	1,116	67	552	33	177,116	100	68,388	39	108,728	61

¹ The manufacturing and nonmanufacturing subtotals include establishments and employees for which unionization was not reported. Therefore, the sum of union and nonunion figures in each group will not equal the group total. A grand total of 76 establishments and 13,089 employees could not be classified by union status.

LENGTH OF VACATION AND SERVICE PERIODS

Generally speaking, the length of vacation allowed to a plant worker depends upon the length of time he has worked for a given employer. If an attempt is made to measure the maximum vacation allowed under both single and graduated types of plan, it is found that 65 percent of the establishments within the scope of this survey, providing paid vacations for plant employees, allowed a maximum of 1 week or less, but that these establishments employed only 36 percent of the plant workers studied (table 5). The majority of the plant workers (56 percent) were found in the smaller number of establishments providing a maximum of from 8 days to 2 weeks, the exact amount again being related to length of service. Five percent of the employees studied were eligible for more than a 2-weeks vacation after working for longer periods, usually 10 years or more. Workers receiving a maximum of only 1 week or less were usually required to have worked 1 year before any vacation was allowed; for workers receiving a maximum of from 8 days to 2 weeks the most common service period required was from 2 to 6 years.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Establishments and Plant Employees, by Maximum Paid-Vacation Period¹ and Service Requirement, April 1943–April 1944*

Maximum paid-vacation period and service-period requirement	All selected industries		Manufacturing		Nonmanufacturing	
	Establishments	Employees	Establishments	Employees	Establishments	Employees
	9,637	3,068,735	7,104	2,712,641	2,533	356,094
Percentage distribution						
Vacation of 1 week or less.....	65	36	68	36	58	36
Service of—						
Less than 1 year.....	7	5	8	6	4	2
1 year and less than 2 years.....	48	27	48	26	47	30
2 and less than 6 years.....	3	2	4	2	3	2
6 and less than 10 years.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
10 years and over.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Service period not specified.....	6	2	7	2	4	2
Vacation of 8 days–2 weeks.....	32	56	29	56	39	50
Service of—						
Less than 1 year.....	1	1	(2)	1	1	1
1 year and less than 2 years.....	9	13	7	14	11	9
2 and less than 6 years.....	17	30	16	29	22	31
6 and less than 10 years.....	1	6	1	7	1	1
10 years and over.....	2	5	3	5	2	6
Service period not specified.....	2	1	2	(2)	2	2
Vacation of over 2 weeks.....	1	5	1	4	2	13
Service of—						
Less than 1 year.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
1 year and less than 2 years.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
2 and less than 6 years.....	(2)	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	3
6 and less than 10 years.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1
10 years and over.....	1	4	1	4	1	9
Service period not specified.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Vacation period not specified.....	2	3	2	4	1	1
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Represents all vacation provisions under single-type plans and the maximum vacation allowed under graduated-type plans.

² Less than 0.5 percent.

The full significance of the type of vacation plan—single or graduated—is apparent only upon more particular analysis of vacation allowances under both types. One week or less was by far the most common paid-vacation period for single-plan establishments, only 11 percent of such establishments granting longer paid-vacation periods (table 6). Of over 6,000 establishments that had single-type plans, only 429, employing 291,612 workers, allowed paid vacations of 2 weeks. These workers were heavily concentrated in a comparatively small number of plants in the aircraft and ordnance industries; a much larger number of establishments granting this comparatively liberal vacation were in the food industry, but these establishments employed relatively few workers. An insignificant number of establishments, operating under the single-type plan, gave more than a 2-weeks' vacation, and these were all in retail trade.

TABLE 6.—*Percentage Distribution of Establishments and Plant Employees, by Type of Plan and Length of Vacation, April 1943–April 1944*

Length of paid-vacation period	Establishments having 1—			Employees covered by 1—		
	Single plan	Graduated plan 2		Single plan	Graduated plan 2	
		Minim- um period	Maxi- mum period		Minim- um period	Maxi- mum period
All selected industries	6,388	3,249	3,249	1,177,389	1,891,346	1,891,346
Manufacturing	4,744	2,360	2,360	1,037,481	1,675,160	1,675,160
Nonmanufacturing	1,644	889	889	139,908	216,186	216,186
Percentage distribution						
All selected industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	88	99	20	71	97	15
Less than 5 days	3	32	1	2	36	1
5 days	35	25	10	32	33	8
1 week (6–7 days)	49	42	9	37	28	6
8 days–2 weeks	11	(3)	74	27	(3)	73
8–10 days	4	(3)	31	2	(3)	48
2 weeks	7	(3)	43	25	(3)	25
Over 2 weeks	(3)		4	(3)		8
Vacation period not specified	1	1	2	2	3	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manufacturing industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	88	99	25	69	97	16
Less than 5 days	4	38	1	3	37	1
5 days	46	32	13	35	35	9
1 week (6–7 days)	38	29	11	31	25	6
8 days–2 weeks	10	(3)	69	29	(3)	73
8–10 days	4	(3)	40	2	(3)	51
2 weeks	6	(3)	29	27	(3)	22
Over 2 weeks	2	1	2	2	3	7
Vacation period not specified	2	1	2	2	3	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nonmanufacturing industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	86	99	6	86	100	3
Less than 5 days	1	15	—	1	28	—
5 days	5	7	(3)	10	16	(3)
1 week (6–7 days)	80	77	6	75	56	3
8 days–2 weeks	13	1	87	13	(3)	73
8–10 days	2	(3)	10	2	(3)	21
2 weeks	11	(3)	77	11	(3)	52
Over 2 weeks	(3)	—	5	(3)	—	22
Vacation period not specified	(3)	—	2	1	—	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Includes data for establishments for which unionization was not reported; in total there were 76 establishments employing 13,089 workers; 47 of these establishments, employing 5,904 workers, had single plans, and 29 establishments, employing 7,185 workers, had graduated plans.

² The minimum vacation period under a graduated plan represents the shortest paid-vacation period provided after a specified minimum service period, whereas the maximum is the longest paid-vacation period provided after a specified longer service period.

³ Less than 0.5 percent.

In establishments having graduated plans, the workers have greater opportunity, depending on length of service, for longer vacation periods. Although it is true that the most common minimum vacation under such plans is again 1 week or less (fewer than 1 percent of such plans provide a minimum of over a week) the maximum period allowed in such establishments ranges up to more than 2 weeks. In the manufacturing industries, the most usual maximum was from 8 to 10 days of vacation at regular pay, while in nonmanufacturing, 2 weeks was the most common maximum allowance.

TABLE 7.—Percentage Distribution of Establishments and Plant Employees, by Length of Required Service Period, April 1943–April 1944

Length of required service period	Establishments having ¹ —			Employees covered by ¹ —		
	Single plan	Graduated plan ²		Single plan	Graduated plan ²	
		Requirement for minimum period	Requirement for maximum period		Requirement for minimum period	Requirement for maximum period
All selected industries	6,388	3,249	3,249	1,177,389	1,891,346	1,891,346
Manufacturing	4,744	2,360	2,360	1,037,481	1,675,160	1,675,160
Nonmanufacturing	1,644	889	889	139,908	216,186	216,186
Percentage distribution						
All selected industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	10	34	3	11	37	3
1 year and less than 2 years	74	59	22	80	58	15
2 and less than 6 years	3	5	57	3	5	54
6 and less than 10 years	(3)	(3)	3	(3)	(3)	11
10 years and over	(3)	11	(3)	(3)	(3)	16
Service period not specified	13	2	4	6	(3)	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manufacturing industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	11	36	4	12	36	3
1 year and less than 2 years	72	56	23	79	59	16
2 and less than 6 years	3	6	54	3	4	54
6 and less than 10 years	(3)	(3)	4	(3)	(3)	12
10 years and over	(3)	11	(3)	(3)	(3)	14
Service period not specified	14	2	4	6	(3)	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nonmanufacturing industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	7	28	1	5	41	1
1 year and less than 2 years	80	65	19	83	49	12
2 and less than 6 years	4	5	65	4	9	58
6 and less than 10 years	(3)	(3)	2	(3)	(3)	2
10 years and over	(3)	9	(3)	(3)	(3)	25
Service period not specified	9	2	4	7	1	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Includes data for establishments for which unionization was not reported; in total there were 76 establishments employing 13,089 workers; 47 of these establishments, employing 5,904 workers, had single plans, 29 establishments, employing 7,185 workers, had graduated plans.

² The minimum service period under a graduated plan represents the shortest service period required before any paid vacation is allowed, whereas the maximum is the shortest service period required before the maximum paid vacation is allowed.

* Less than 0.5 percent.

Analysis of the data for individual industries shows that the industries in which vacation provisions were most common (aircraft, electrical machinery, chemicals, food, and retail trade) were also those in which the longer vacation periods were provided. It is also of interest that graduated rather than single-type plans predominated in these industries. Among establishments having the single-type plan, the aircraft, chemical, and crude-petroleum industries were the only ones in which over 50 percent of the plant workers were allowed a paid vacation of more than 1 week. By contrast, in another group of industries—textiles, smelting, paper, electrical machinery, and laundries—over 95 percent of the workers were allowed vacations of 1 week or less.

In graduated-plan establishments the majority of workers were covered by provisions for a maximum paid-vacation period of over 1 week in all industries except textiles and lumber products. The

aircraft, chemical, ordnance, electrical machinery, food, and nonferrous-smelting industries had the highest proportion of workers eligible for the more liberal paid-vacation allowances. Practically all workers in the chemical and food industries and in the nonmanufacturing industries surveyed, other than laundries, were in plants providing a maximum of over 1 week. Over 40 percent of the workers in the food industries, one-fifth of those in electrical-machinery production, and about one-third of those in department stores were employed in plants providing a maximum of over 2 weeks.

Establishments shown in the "not specified" vacation-period group include chiefly those which paid a fixed amount of money to the worker for the vacation period, unrelated to a day's wage. Many of these paid a percentage of annual earnings. In some establishments having graduated plans the minimum but not the maximum vacation period was specified; hence, with respect to the maximum, these plants were classified in the "not specified" group.

The service period required for eligibility for the various paid-vacation periods was usually 1 year under the single-plan provisions and for the minimum allowed by the graduated plans (table 7). Many graduated-plan establishments, however, granted the minimum vacation after less than 1 year's service. From 2 to 6 years' service was required for the maximum vacation under graduated plans in 54 percent of the manufacturing and 65 percent of the nonmanufacturing establishments.

EFFECT OF UNIONIZATION

Plants are classified by the Bureau as union or nonunion on the basis of whether or not the majority of their workers are covered by union agreements. Hence, not all of the employees shown under "union" are actually covered by union agreements.

The number of establishments operating under union agreements represented only 40 percent of all establishments covered in the study and a considerably smaller proportion of the nonmanufacturing industry groups alone (table 3). However, workers in union establishments accounted for 70 percent of all plant workers studied.

A much higher proportion of union establishments had paid-vacation provisions than did nonunion establishments. Although in terms of the number of employees the variation between union and nonunion plants was not quite so great, there was still a very noticeable difference. It is generally true, of course, that more liberal provisions prevail in larger plants and larger communities. Examination of establishments by size, however, indicates that although both union and nonunion plants in the larger-size group more often had paid-vacation provisions than did the smaller plants, in each size group a considerably larger proportion of union than of nonunion establishments had such provisions.

A somewhat larger proportion of union than of nonunion establishments had graduated rather than single plans (but, as for all establishments, these were fewer in number than single-plan establishments, table 4). The length of paid vacations and service-period requirements in union establishments (tables 8 and 9) do not differ markedly from those shown for the entire group of plants studied.

TABLE 8.—*Percentage Distribution of Establishments and Plant Employees, by Unionization and Type of Vacation Plan, April 1943–April 1944*

UNION ESTABLISHMENTS

Length of paid-vacation period	Establishments having—			Employees covered by—		
	Single plan	Graduated plan ¹		Single plan	Graduated plan ¹	
		Minim-	Maxi-		Minim-	Maxi-
All selected industries	3,020	1,816	1,816	826,783	1,414,039	1,414,039
Manufacturing	2,502	1,492	1,492	756,328	1,309,508	1,309,508
Nonmanufacturing	518	324	324	70,455	104,531	104,531
Percentage distribution						
All selected industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	89	98	19	60	96	11
Less than 5 days	2	30	1	2	31	(2)
5 days	45	31	11	35	40	7
1 week (6-7 days)	42	37	7	32	25	4
8 days-2 weeks	9	(2)	75	28	(3)	76
8-10 days	4	(2)	38	2	(2)	51
2 weeks	5	(2)	37	26	(2)	25
Over 2 weeks			4			8
Vacation period not specified	2	1	2	3	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manufacturing industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	88	98	22	67	96	12
Less than 5 days	3	34	1	2	31	(2)
5 days	52	36	13	37	42	8
1 week (6-7 days)	33	28	8	28	23	4
8 days-2 weeks	9	(2)	72	29	(2)	76
8-10 days	4	(2)	44	2	(2)	52
2 weeks	5	(2)	28	27	(2)	24
Over 2 weeks			4			7
Vacation period not specified	3	1	2	4	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nonmanufacturing industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	93	100	3	93	100	2
Less than 5 days	1	14	—	1	31	—
5 days	8	7	—	8	19	—
1 week (6-7 days)	84	79	3	84	50	2
8 days-2 weeks	7	(2)	90	7	(2)	78
8-10 days	2	(2)	14	2	(2)	30
2 weeks	5	—	76	5	—	48
Over 2 weeks			5			19
Vacation period not specified			2			1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 8.—Percentage Distribution of Establishments and Plant Employees, by Unionization and Type of Vacation Plan, April 1943–April 1944—Continued

NONUNION ESTABLISHMENTS

Length of paid-vacation period	Establishments having—			Employees covered by—		
	Single plan	Graduated plan ¹		Single plan	Graduated plan ¹	
		Minim-	Maxi-		Minim-	Maxi-
All selected industries	3,321	1,404	1,404	344,702	470,122	470,122
Manufacturing	2,206	852	852	276,314	361,394	361,394
Nonmanufacturing	1,115	552	552	68,388	108,728	108,728
Percentage distribution						
All selected industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	87	99	22	74	99	24
Less than 5 days	4	34	1	4	51	1
5 days	28	17	9	26	11	12
1 week (6-7 days)	55	48	12	44	37	11
8 days-2 weeks	12	1	72	26	(2)	66
8-10 days	4	(2)	22	2	(2)	41
2 weeks	8	(2)	50	24	(2)	25
Over 2 weeks	(2)	(2)	4	(2)	1	8
Vacation period not specified	(2)	(2)	2	(2)	1	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manufacturing industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	90	100	31	73	90	29
Less than 5 days	5	47	1	5	57	2
5 days	41	23	14	29	11	15
1 week (6-7 days)	44	30	16	39	31	12
8 days-2 weeks	10	(2)	64	27	(2)	65
8-10 days	5	(2)	32	2	(2)	49
2 weeks	5	—	32	25	—	16
Over 2 weeks	(2)	(2)	3	—	1	4
Vacation period not specified	(2)	(2)	2	(2)	1	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nonmanufacturing industries: Vacation of—						
1 week or less	83	99	7	78	99	4
Less than 5 days	1	16	—	1	26	—
5 days	3	7	(2)	11	13	(2)
1 week (6-7 days)	79	76	7	66	60	4
8 days-2 weeks	16	1	86	21	1	69
8-10 days	2	(2)	7	3	(2)	13
2 weeks	14	1	79	18	(2)	56
Over 2 weeks	(2)	—	5	(2)	—	24
Vacation period not specified	1	—	2	1	—	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ The minimum vacation period under a graduated plan represents the shortest paid-vacation period provided after a specified service period, whereas the maximum is the longest paid-vacation period provided after a specified longer service period.

² Less than 0.5 percent.

TABLE 9.—Percentage Distribution of Establishments and Plant Employees, by Unionization and Length of Required Service Period, April 1943–April 1944

UNION ESTABLISHMENTS

Length of required service period	Establishments having—			Employees covered by—		
	Single plan	Graduated plan ¹		Single plan	Graduated plan ¹	
		Requirement for minimum period	Requirement for maximum period		Requirement for minimum period	Requirement for maximum period
All selected industries	3,020	1,816	1,816	826,783	1,414,039	1,414,039
Manufacturing	2,502	1,492	1,492	756,328	1,309,508	1,309,508
Nonmanufacturing	518	324	324	70,455	104,531	104,531
Percentage distribution						
All selected industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	9	27	2	8	31	2
1 year and less than 2 years	76	65	17	84	64	14
2 and less than 6 years	3	6	61	3	5	57
6 and less than 10 years			5			10
10 years and over	(2)		12	(2)		16
Service period not specified	12	2	3	5	(2)	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manufacturing industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	11	30	3	8	31	2
1 year and less than 2 years	74	63	18	84	65	14
2 and less than 6 years	2	5	60	3	4	57
6 and less than 10 years			4			11
10 years and over			11			15
Service period not specified	13	2	4	5	(2)	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nonmanufacturing industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	4	17	1	2	34	1
1 year and less than 2 years	83	69	8	88	48	10
2 and less than 6 years	7	13	67	4	17	58
6 and less than 10 years			4			3
10 years and over	(2)		17	1		27
Service period not specified	6	1	3	5	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

NONUNION ESTABLISHMENTS

All selected industries	3,321	1,404	1,404	344,702	470,122	470,122
Manufacturing	2,206	852	852	276,314	361,394	361,394
Nonmanufacturing	1,115	552	552	68,388	108,728	108,728
Percentage distribution						
All selected industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	11	42	4	19	55	6
1 year and less than 2 years	72	52	29	70	40	21
2 and less than 6 years	3	4	51	3	4	45
6 and less than 10 years	(2)	(2)	3	(2)	(2)	13
10 years and over	(2)		9	(2)		13
Service period not specified	13	2	4	8	1	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manufacturing industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	12	46	6	21	57	8
1 year and less than 2 years	69	45	30	68	37	23
2 and less than 6 years	4	7	43	3	5	41
6 and less than 10 years	(2)	(2)	4	(2)	(2)	17
10 years and over	(2)		12	(2)		10
Service period not specified	15	2	5	8	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nonmanufacturing industries: Service of—						
Less than 1 year	9	35	1	9	49	2
1 year and less than 2 years	79	62	26	78	49	14
2 and less than 6 years	2	1	63	4	1	58
6 and less than 10 years			1			1
10 years and over	(2)		5	(2)		22
Service period not specified	10	2	4	9	1	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ The minimum service period under a graduated plan represents the shortest service period required before any paid vacation is allowed whereas the maximum is the shortest service period required before the maximum paid vacation is allowed.

² Less than 0.5 percent.

GEOGRAPHICAL VARIATION

Geographically, the Southern and Border States had the lowest proportion of establishments (less than half) with paid-vacation provisions for plant workers (table 2). In other regions, from 68 to 77 percent of the establishments provided some vacation for their plant employees, and from 85 to 96 percent of the workers were found in these plants.

Vacation Provisions for Office Employees

Paid vacations have been provided for office workers for a much longer time and much more generally than for plant workers. In fact, this type of perquisite has been considered one of the advantages of office work. Because of the more general acceptance of paid-vacation provisions for these workers, discussion and presentation of data on their current situation is of less immediate significance than the data relating to plant employees. This section, therefore, gives only a brief summary of paid-vacation data applicable to office workers and is included merely to round out the picture with respect to the establishments studied.

About 11,000 of the establishments included in the study reported definite information on paid-vacation provisions for office workers (table 10). These establishments employed almost half a million office workers, of whom 80 percent were in the manufacturing industries. Banks are included in the office-worker tabulations in addition to the industries studied in connection with plant employees.

TABLE 10.—*Type of Paid-Vacation Provision for Office Employees, by Type of Industry, April 1943–April 1944*

Type of industry	Total		Paid-vacation provisions		No provisions		Paid-vacation provisions				
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Total: Percent	Single plan		Graduated plan	
								Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Establishments: All selected industries¹											
Manufacturing industries	10,860	100	9,370	86	1,499	14	100	6,847	73	2,523	27
Nonmanufacturing industries	8,452	100	7,265	86	1,187	14	100	5,448	75	1,817	25
Employees: All selected industries											
Manufacturing industries	2,417	100	2,105	87	312	13	100	1,309	66	706	34
Nonmanufacturing industries	446,779	100	432,940	97	13,839	3	100	192,770	44	240,170	56
Manufacturing industries	355,366	100	344,173	97	11,193	3	100	164,028	47	180,145	53
Nonmanufacturing industries	91,413	100	88,767	97	2,646	3	100	28,742	32	60,025	68

¹ Excludes 2,003 establishments reporting no office employees, 1,113 not reporting on vacations for office employees, and 1,187 for which provisions were not designated as being applicable to plant or office employees. The latter are included only with plant data.

Although only 86 percent of the establishments had regular vacation plans for office workers, 97 percent of the office employees studied were working in these establishments. In general, the paid-vacation period allowed for office workers was more liberal than that for plant employees. Almost half of the single-plan establishments, employing almost three-fourths of the office workers covered by such plans, provided for from 8 days to 2 weeks of paid vacation. Two weeks was the most

common maximum under graduated plans, although 133 establishments with over 30,000 office employees allowed a maximum of more than 2 weeks.

One year was the most usual service period required for any paid vacation under the single-type plan. Under graduated plans the service requirement for the minimum paid vacation was generally less than a year, except in metal mining, and for the maximum paid-vacation period, 1 year and from 2 to 6 years were almost equally common requirements.

Law for Compulsory Paid Vacations in Iceland¹

AN ACT of February 26, 1943, in Iceland, provides for vacations with pay for every person covered by the act at the rate of 1 day for every calendar month worked during the last preceding "vacation" year (i. e., the year ending on May 14). The vacations are to be granted in a continuous period between June 1 and September 15, except in case of persons employed in agriculture or herring fishing. For permanent employees, the vacation allowance is at the regular rate of pay and is payable on the last working day before vacation begins. For other employees, the vacation allowance is at the rate of 4 percent of the earnings during the last vacation year, service during that year being attested by stamps affixed by the employer in a vacation book each pay day; between June 1 and September 15, the employee may draw, at any post office, the total amount of the value of the stamps in the vacation book in return for the surrender of the book and a receipt for the amount received. Amounts not drawn by September 15 revert to the State, unless payment is postponed for special reasons laid down by the act or its administrative regulations.

Exemptions from the provisions of this act are provided for apprentices, for fishermen who are remunerated exclusively by a share of the profits, and for those who already have more favorable vacation allowances by either agreement or custom.

Under the act, every person covered must take the annual vacation, and is prohibited during that time from engaging in work for pay in his own or similar occupation. Detailed rules forbidding such work are to be prescribed by administrative regulation.

¹ Data are from International Labor Office, Legislative Series, October-December 1944.

Industrial Injuries

Industrial Injuries, August 1944

ESTIMATES based upon the reports of 12,602 manufacturing establishments indicate that approximately 65,000 manufacturing workers were disabled by injuries experienced in the course of their employment during August. The direct manpower loss arising from these injuries is estimated to have been about 1,300,000 man-days, or the equivalent of full-time employment for the month for over 48,000 workers.

In comparison with the preceding month, the August estimate represents an increase of 3,500 disabling injuries. However, because of the additional workday in August, with the resulting increase in the number of hours worked, the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rates for the 2 months were practically the same. In August the unweighted average frequency rate for all manufacturing activities was 20.2 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked. The corresponding average for July was 20.4. Cumulative data from January 1 to August 31 indicate an average of 19.6 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked during the first 8 months of 1944, a slight improvement over the average of 20.8 for the same period of 1943.

Among the 88 manufacturing classifications for which August data were collected, frequency-rate increases slightly outnumbered the decreases. Twenty-six of the industry groups had August frequency rates ranging from 1 to 5 frequency-rate points higher than their July rates, and 10 others had August rates which were 5 or more points higher than in July. As a result of these increases the August frequency rates for 18 industries were higher than the corresponding rates for any previous month of 1944. Decreases of 5 or more points from their July levels were recorded in the August frequency rates of 12 industries, however; and 20 other industries had August rates which were from 1 to 5 points lower than in July. These decreases gave 8 industries the lowest monthly rates so far recorded in 1944. The lowest frequency rate in August was 7.2 for the women's clothing industry and the highest was 71.7 for the plate fabrication and boilersharp products industry.

The cumulative frequency rates of the different industry groups, covering the first 8 months of 1944, ranged from an average of 5.9 for the women's clothing industry to 56.8 for the sawmill industry. Other industries with cumulative frequency rates of less than 10 were explosives, 6.2; rayon and allied products (chemical), 6.6; small-arms ammunition, 7.1; radios and phonographs, 8.7; sighting and fire-control equipment, 8.9; aircraft, 9.5; soap and glycerin, 9.6; and iron and steel, 9.8. In the high frequency-rate group there were 5 industries, in

addition to sawmills, which had cumulative rates of over 40 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked. These were foundries, 43.8; sheet-metal work, 44.6; planing mills, 48.5; wooden containers, 55.0; and plate fabrication and boiler-shop products, 56.2.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates¹ for Selected Manufacturing Industries, August 1944,
With Cumulative Rates for 1944*

Industry ²	August 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate ³	1944: January-August, cumulative ³	1943: Annual ⁴
Agricultural machinery and tractors	50	20.9	22.5	19.9
Aircraft	47	8.0	9.5	9.7
Aircraft parts	288	14.1	12.4	11.7
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over	350	22.5	25.1	19.0
Ammunition, small-arms	22	8.8	7.1	5.1
Baking	7	24.0	20.6	20.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	38	31.0	30.2	21.7
Book and job	41	12.6	12.0	10.5
Boots and shoes, other than rubber	306	15.3	15.1	11.8
Canning and preserving	49	28.3	24.9	25.3
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified	80	10.1	12.2	17.1
Chemicals, industrial	323	15.7	15.7	18.3
Clothing, men's	491	10.7	11.0	7.6
Clothing, women's	383	7.2	5.9	4.6
Commercial and household machines	58	23.1	20.0	18.0
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	110	42.5	37.3	40.8
Confectionery	7	14.6	16.7	19.4
Construction and mining machinery	109	32.4	28.9	29.5
Cotton goods	211	16.4	15.2	16.7
Cutlery and edge tools	30	22.5	27.1	25.9
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	80	23.8	20.0	18.5
Dyeing and finishing	50	24.8	25.2	23.6
Electrical equipment and supplies	580	10.8	10.9	10.9
Engines and turbines	35	14.0	12.1	18.2
Explosives	90	8.7	6.2	5.3
Fabricated structural steel	100	39.3	35.9	34.7
Flour, feed, and grain-mill products	8	18.5	23.2	30.2
Food products, not elsewhere classified	41	34.3	26.7	31.2
Food-products machinery	23	27.7	31.4	27.2
Forgings, iron and steel	148	39.2	35.2	40.8
Foundries, iron and steel	580	48.2	43.8	43.4
Furniture, except metal	65	25.1	27.8	27.0
General industrial machinery	683	25.7	23.6	23.0
Glass	42	16.1	18.8	20.2
Guns and related equipment	100	17.9	17.2	15.5
Hardware	39	22.0	19.9	20.2
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	50	37.6	31.9	36.3
Iron and steel	208	9.4	9.8	10.0
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified	296	32.5	29.1	26.4
Knit goods	85	13.9	11.5	8.3
Leather	27	30.6	30.2	29.4
Leather products, not elsewhere classified	28	13.9	21.4	22.1
Machine shops, general	201	20.5	25.1	25.3
Metalworking machinery	700	20.3	18.3	19.2
Miscellaneous lumber products, not elsewhere classified	41	37.2	39.8	37.1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	380	13.5	16.0	14.2
Motor vehicles	102	16.0	13.6	13.6
Motor-vehicle parts	71	24.3	26.2	22.0
Nonferrous-metal products	573	28.6	27.0	25.0
Ordnance and accessories	44	24.3	24.5	14.0
Paints and varnishes	76	19.4	19.6	19.0
Paper	254	31.8	30.1	31.5
Paper boxes and containers	419	29.5	25.7	22.7
Paper products, not elsewhere classified	44	22.3	21.7	26.9
Paper and pulp (integrated)	97	26.2	26.3	25.5
Planing mills	51	49.2	48.5	44.2
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products	99	71.7	56.2	44.3
Plumbers' supplies	22	19.7	17.2	21.9
Pottery	37	17.6	18.2	19.5
Pulp	27	34.3	35.4	32.6

See footnotes at end of table.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates¹ for Selected Manufacturing Industries, August 1944,
With Cumulative Rates for 1944—Continued*

Industry ²	August 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establish- ments	Frequency rate ³	1944: Jan- uary-Aug- ust, cumula- tive ³	1943: An- nual ⁴
Radios and phonographs	194	7.9	8.7	7.9
Railroad equipment	47	28.6	23.3	25.0
Rayon and allied products (chemical)	23	7.6	6.6	10.5
Rubber boots and shoes	14	13.1	14.3	10.7
Rubber and rubber products, not elsewhere classified	103	20.4	17.0	19.7
Rubber tires	29	18.6	14.6	14.5
Sawmills	46	63.9	56.8	58.4
Screws and screw-machine products	75	26.0	27.8	19.2
Sheet-metal work	37	30.4	44.6	26.5
Shipbuilding	237	23.9	25.2	31.5
Sighting and fire-control equipment	37	8.5	8.9	9.3
Silk and rayon products, not elsewhere classified	47	16.2	14.5	13.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	632	40.3	35.6	47.6
Small arms	60	17.2	14.3	8.6
Soap and glycerin	9	9.8	9.6	11.4
Special industry machinery, not elsewhere classified	95	25.6	24.0	24.6
Stamped and pressed metal products	243	37.9	32.7	28.8
Steam fittings and apparatus	53	25.3	26.0	30.5
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified	86	19.9	15.0	19.3
Tanks, military	14	15.4	13.5	12.2
Tank parts, military	48	16.5	21.9	16.2
Textile machinery	11	14.7	24.3	14.6
Textile and textile-mill products, not elsewhere classified	188	15.7	19.0	20.6
Tin cans and other tinware	22	22.4	20.1	17.3
Tools, except edge tools	68	25.2	26.0	25.5
Wire and wire products	155	29.0	24.0	21.4
Wooden containers	56	60.5	55.0	48.8
Woolen goods	150	21.0	19.2	19.8

¹ The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.

² A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.

³ Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.

⁴ Based on comprehensive annual survey.

Labor Organizations

Convention of Iron Workers (A. F. of L.), 1944¹

THE twenty-seventh convention of the International Association of Bridge, Structural and Ornamental Iron Workers (A. F. of L.)² met during the week of September 18 to 23, 1944, in St. Louis, Mo. The convention was attended by 514 delegates from 292 locals, representing 100,000 paid-up members, or more than double the membership reported at the preceding convention held in September 1940, as indicated below.

	<i>Members</i>		<i>Members</i>		<i>Members</i>
1905	10, 200	1919	24, 000	1933	10, 300
1906	9, 800	1920	27, 600	1934	11, 700
1907	11, 600	1921	22, 400	1935	13, 200
1908	10, 400	1922	15, 100	1936	17, 200
1909	9, 600	1923	17, 000	1937	31, 700
1910	10, 900	1924	19, 200	1938	42, 200
1911	12, 200	1925	19, 600	1939	38, 800
1912	10, 900	1926	19, 300	1940	41, 300
1913	12, 200	1927	21, 500	1941	62, 700
1914	13, 200	1928	21, 600	1942	94, 400
1915	12, 300	1929	22, 500	1943	115, 600
1916	14, 200	1930	22, 500	1944	100, 500
1917	16, 000	1931	19, 100		
1918	18, 600	1932	14, 500		

Officers' Report

The delegates approved the 129-page report of the officers, reviewing the problems of the union and recommending future policies. Among the more significant subjects discussed in the report were jurisdiction of shipyard riggers, job classifications and descriptions, apprenticeship training, and post-war planning.

Jurisdiction of shipyard riggers.—The union's claim of jurisdiction over the organization of shipyard riggers, that has been advanced by the International ever since its organization, was recognized in 1919

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Information Service, by Boris Stern and John L. Afros.

² Local unions in six cities merged on February 4, 1896, at Pittsburgh, Pa., to form the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers. At the 1914 convention, the union's jurisdiction was extended, and its name was changed to International Association of Bridge, Structural and Ornamental Iron Workers and Pile Drivers. This action resulted in a jurisdictional dispute with the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America over the locals of pile drivers, and in July 1917 the bridge workers' union was suspended from the American Federation of Labor. The union then dropped "pile drivers" from its title and relinquished the locals of pile drivers to the United Brotherhood, retaining, however, the claim to the ornamental-iron workers. At the 1917 convention of the A. F. of L. the Association was reinstated, but the extension of jurisdiction and the title used by the International Association were not recognized; its charter is still in the name of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers.

Among the major trades and occupations over which the International claims jurisdiction are fabrication, erection, and construction of all iron and steel; ornamental lead, bronze, brass, copper, and aluminum; reinforced-concrete structures or parts thereof; bridges, viaducts, inclines, dams, docks, dredges, vessels, locks, gates, aqueducts, reservoirs, spillways, flumes, caissons, cofferdams, subways, tunnels, cableways, tramways, monorails, blast furnaces, stoves, kilns, coolers, crushers, agitators, pulverizers, mixers, concentrators, ovens, cupolas, etc. For full details see article IV of the union's constitution, 1940 edition.

in an agreement of the member unions of the A. F. of L. Metal Trades Department with which the ironworkers are affiliated. By this agreement the ironworkers' union was given complete control over all rigging performed in private shipyards and navy yards. The union's jurisdiction, however, has been challenged from time to time by other unions in the shipbuilding field. The rivalry over the right to organize the riggers has in many cases manifested itself in preventing the ironworkers' locals from affiliating with local metal-trades councils. This conflict, the report stated, was finally resolved by a decision of the 1942 convention of the Metal Trades Department, reaffirming the ironworkers' exclusive jurisdiction over all riggers.

Job classifications and descriptions.—The officers' report charged that the job classifications and job descriptions drawn up by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, upon which the War Labor Board has been basing its "sound and tested going wage rates" have been from the very beginning out of harmony with the prevailing practices in the industry. This was attributed to the fact that in many of the industries engaged in war production these classifications and descriptions were assembled under circumstances that did not permit a careful and extended study. Although recognizing the urgency existing at the time the Bureau undertook the task at the request of the Board, the ironworkers' union has been protesting the use of these "unrealistic" classifications by the national and regional boards. The officers' report called upon the Government agencies involved to bring these classifications and descriptions in line with the actual practices.

The Iron Workers' International participated with several other affiliates of the Metal Trades Department of the A. F. of L.³ in the conference on job classifications called by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in July 1944. President Morrin submitted a "complete statement" on classifications and descriptions in the structural-steel and ornamental-metal fabricating industry, expressing the hope that the classifications and descriptions used by the National and Regional War Labor Boards would be revised accordingly. In his report to the union's convention, President Morrin indicated that he considered the Bureau's conference to be of the "utmost importance to our shopmen, in that the only way to establish wage scales in the shops is by classifying the various work operations and establishing minimum-wage rates for each classification." He voiced the belief that the decisions reached at the conference would facilitate the consideration of the union's cases pending before the War Labor Board.

Apprenticeship training.—Although the union's constitution makes provision for the admission of apprentices, it has neither apprenticeship standards nor a definite program for the training of apprentices. The demand for skilled ironworkers and apprentices since the beginning of the war has been so great that the supply has not been sufficient to man all jobs available during most of this period. The necessity for speed on many war projects, the officers' report declared, made it necessary to employ whatever manpower was available "regardless of skill or training."

The report stressed the industry's need for apprentices and advocated the encouragement of apprenticeship training, in order that the union "as an integral part of the steel industry would be provided

³ A similar conference of C. I. O. affiliates was held at about the same time.

with an even, continuous supply of men versed and trained in the particular and special skills of our trade."

Confident that at the conclusion of the war a large building and construction program would absorb all available skilled mechanics, the officers expressed the hope that the International and its constituent unions would make it possible for the young men returning from the armed forces, who desire to become ironworkers, to serve their apprenticeship under conditions that will give them skill, training, and practical knowledge to become first-class, all-round competent mechanics at some branch of the trade.

Post-war planning.—The officers' optimistic outlook for a large volume of work after the war was elaborated in the section on post-war planning. Among the projects which they expected to provide work for the members were repair and construction of roads, elevated highways, public buildings, hospitals, and rehabilitation centers; and the building of new plants for the "myriad of new products" that will be in demand after the war. The officers also urged the convention to "align the union" with the A. F. of L. Post-War Planning Committee in promoting its plans for the post-war period, as formulated at the post-war forum held in New York in April 1944.

The recommendation was approved by the convention, with the reservation that the program may be altered should drastic changes occur between now and the end of the war.

Resolutions Adopted by Convention

The resolutions approved by the convention included decisions to exempt union members from the payment of dues while in the armed services, and to provide them with special membership identification cards. Nonservicemen who resigned from the union will be required to pass a physical examination as a prerequisite to reinstatement.

The convention went on record in favor of an upward revision of the "Little Steel" wage formula, to bring wages in line with the rise in cost of living. It also endorsed continuation of the no-strike pledge that was made by the union's officers immediately after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

Article 8 of the constitution was amended to empower the executive council to retire with full pay any officer or organizer who has been in the full-time employ of the International for a period of 20 years or more. Approval was given to an increase from \$25 to \$35 a month in the maximum pension paid to union members over 60 years of age who have been in continuous membership for 25 years.

The annual salaries of International officers were raised as follows: General president, from \$15,000 to \$20,000; general secretary, \$6,000 to \$8,000; and general treasurer, \$5,000 to \$8,000.

Officers and Next Convention

The following officers were reelected for a term of 4 years: General president, Patrick J. Morrin, who has held that office since 1918; general secretary, John H. Lyons; general treasurer, John J. Dempsey; and nine vice-presidents, who, together with the other officers, constitute the general executive council.

The next convention is scheduled for September 1948, in a city to be designated by the executive council.

Convention of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers (C. I. O.), 1944¹

A FAR-REACHING post-war program for the shipbuilding industry was the major problem confronting the 650 delegates² representing 51 locals at the tenth annual convention of the Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America (C. I. O.), held in Atlantic City, September 28 to October 4, 1944. The officers' report to the convention pointed out that, unless the shipbuilding industry and the Nation adopt a realistic approach to the problem of conversion to a peacetime economy, approximately 1,500,000 of the 1,722,000 now employed in the industry will lose their jobs. The estimated drop from 50,000,000 tons of merchant shipping at the close of the war to the 20,000,000 needed in peacetime will present a grave problem of means for keeping the shipbuilders employed.

Post-War Program

The officers and the general executive board presented for the consideration of the delegates a comprehensive program for the reconversion and expansion of the shipbuilding industry, for increased foreign and domestic trade, and for continuance of the present level of employment.

The specific proposals of the report fall into four main categories, viz., international trade policy, measures for reconversion and rehabilitation, provisions for veterans, and labor's role in the industry.

International trade policy.—The union's position on America's foreign economic policy affecting shipping may be summarized as follows:

1. To maintain the shipbuilding industry on a high level of production, it will be essential to expand American foreign trade from its 1929 peak of \$9,500,000,000 to \$20,000,000,000 annually.
2. The nations of the world must agree to a no-tariff policy as a means to encourage and expand trade and shipping.
3. America and the rest of the world must follow an expansionist program, developing the resources and raising the living standards of the industrially backward peoples of China, Africa, and Indo-European areas.
4. Sound monetary policies must be encouraged to provide trade stability, room for expansion, and flexibility in case of emergency.
5. The United States should call a conference of all maritime nations, to allocate shipping and shipbuilding quotas to the various countries and to investigate the possibilities for trade expansion.
6. Supplementing the work of the conference there should be a continually functioning commission to formulate a code of international labor standards aiming at the reduction and eventual elimination of labor-cost differentials.
7. All possible aid and advice should be given in the rebuilding of docking and shipping facilities of the ravaged ports of nations overseas, with which the United States will trade in the post-war era.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Information Service, by Boris Stern and John L. Afros.

² There were 62 Negro delegates at the convention. According to an estimate by Richard Carter, Negro member of the general executive board, the I. U. M. S. W. A. has a membership of about 85,000 Negroes, out of a total of over 400,000 workers for whom the union acts as a bargaining agent.

rs
indus-
esent-
Union
eld in
report
dustry
onver-
22,000
mated
of the
prob-

e con-
recon-
eased
level

ories,
abili-

s for-
llows:
pro-
from

as a

onist
ards
ndo-

rade
7.
ions,
tries

be a
inter-
limi-

ng of
over-

Negro
groes,

8. The United States must maintain an adequate and completely modernized Navy, taking full advantage of the technological improvements discovered during this war. (The report emphasizes, however, that it does not propose "an armament race against the world.")

Measures for reconversion and rehabilitation.—In dealing with domestic problems of the industry, the union report pointed out that the only way the United States Government can recover its investment of 1½ billion dollars in permanent shipbuilding equipment and installations is by continued productive utilization of these facilities. It also called attention to the Government-financed housing in and around the shipyard areas which will become useless if there is no shipbuilding. The Government was therefore urged to adopt the following measures and policies to encourage shipping and shipbuilding:

1. A national tripartite planning body, composed of Government, industry, and labor members, should be formed immediately to study and recommend a program for the most effective operation of existing shipbuilding facilities and plans for the expansion of the industry. As a guide for such planning, the report suggests maintenance of minimum costs, linked to high wage levels and efficient operation, in order to meet competition. Regional, port, and yard tripartite subcommittees should be organized to survey local facilities and recommend to the national planning body policies to increase local shipbuilding activities.

2. Newer equipment of surplus Government-owned shipping and shipbuilding properties should be sold to responsible shipbuilding companies, while older equipment should be scrapped.

3. The comparatively slow Liberty ships should not be scrapped nor sold at speculation prices. They should be used for post-war relief and rehabilitation of allied countries, whose shipping has been destroyed by the war.

4. The yards of smaller companies that may go out of business after the war or change their operations—making their present equipment useless—should be sold to those shipbuilding companies that will use such equipment to rehabilitate their yards.

5. Every possible means should be used by the Government, including a liberal program of subsidies and loans, to insure reasonably good profit prospects in shipping and shipbuilding, so that new capital may be attracted to the industry.

6. A passenger-cargo fleet of about 18,000,000 to 20,000,000 tons, with a speed of 22 knots an hour, should be constructed in order to provide passenger travel within the financial reach of the greatest possible number. A fleet of all-passenger luxury liners, should be built by the Government and included in the merchant marine, as such liners are "completely uneconomical for any private shipping company to purchase and operate without having most of the cost borne by Government subsidy."

7. The Government should enact legislation to make the internal unnavigable waters navigable, and in cooperation with city and State governments, should extend and rehabilitate harbor and docking facilities of coastal and inland waterways, and integrate railroads, airplanes, and ships into a unified transportation system.

8. At least two or three yards on each coast, in which shipbuilding companies have no fixed capital investment, should be retained by the

Government as training and retraining centers and for experimentation with new methods of building and repair, and new types of ships made from lighter metals and alloys. These training yards would provide a labor pool of young mechanics conversant with the industry and its problems. Retraining older craftsmen in the newer skills would not only prevent their being thrown out of work because of the introduction of new methods but would also insure an adequate force of skilled shipyard labor available to meet emergencies.

To find new sources of employment for the industry's surplus manpower, the convention authorized a study to determine the kind and volume of prefabricated manufacturing to which the various yards might be converted.

Union's policy toward veterans.—In the section devoted to returning servicemen, the report again stressed the gravity of post-war employment opportunities by pointing out that "there are more shipbuilding workers in the Army than there will be jobs in the shipbuilding industry if it operates on a restricted basis." The convention resolved that—

1. Men and women in the armed services and in the merchant marine should be reinstated in their former jobs or placed in new jobs at wage rates not less than they received immediately preceding their entry into the service. All contracts with employers should provide full accumulation of job seniority during their absence in the armed forces and merchant marine.

2. Full credit should be given to veterans toward promotion and upgrading for new skills acquired while in the armed forces.

3. Initiation fees and back dues for all returning servicemen and merchant seamen shall be waived.

4. The local unions should cooperate with community groups in creating "one-stop" veterans' centers to which they can be sent for financial, legal, medical, and vocational aid.

5. National legislation, embodying the essential features of the Kilgore and Celler bills dealing with post-war reconversion, should be enacted.

6. Adequate protection should be given the families of men who died in the armed service, including Government provision for the education of their children and for vocational training of their widows.

Labor's role in the industry.—The union's post-war program, as regards employment, wages, and working conditions, included the following demands:

1. A 30-hour workweek to be instituted immediately after the close of the war with Japan.

2. A guaranteed minimum weekly and annual wage, through guaranteed employment of 52 weeks a year without reducing the present weekly earnings.

3. Protection of workers from losses in earnings owing to illness or injury, through an industry-wide insurance scheme in which employers and workers shall each share equally.

4. Severance pay up to a maximum of 5 months' pay for 5 years' service to those workers who do not want to remain in the industry.

5. For those who desire to remain in the industry, (a) port-wide union hiring halls to regularize employment, (b) scheduling of work to provide continuous employment for the laboring force within the port, whether in one yard or another, and established seniority maintained accordingly, (c) improved working conditions within the yards

and installation of proper sanitary facilities and eating facilities where lacking, and (d) adjustment of the wage structure to correct Nation-wide inequities which have arisen as a result of the Stabilization Act of 1942.

Resolutions of Convention

No-strike pledge.—Two resolutions on the no-strike pledge—a majority report advocating reaffirmation and a minority report demanding repudiation—evoked a long and spirited debate. After a vote of about 600 to 50 in favor of reaffirming the pledge “until the war has been finally won, both in the West and in the East,” the spokesman for the opposition moved to make the vote unanimous.

War Labor Board.—Although “vigorously condemning” the Board for policies which are causing “interminable” delays in the disposition of cases and creating “the most intense unrest and resentment throughout the Nation,” the convention expressed its “complete support” of the Board as a necessary agency which “must be continued” for the peaceful adjustment of labor-management disputes during the war. The delegates also assailed those employers who “are deliberately using the deficiencies and shortcomings in the policies and the administrative machinery of the Board to provoke labor and to cause confusion.”

Another resolution directed at the War Labor Board dealt with the union’s efforts to obtain increased rates and union security for the smaller shipyards. In order that all the employees in the industry, especially those in the small yards, may receive the advantages of the increase to \$1.20 per hour for first-class mechanics, the incoming officers were instructed to urge the Shipbuilding Commission of the War Labor Board to continue the policy instituted by the Shipbuilding Stabilization Committee.

Labor unity.—In a resolution deplored the “division in the house of labor,” the convention declared itself for a strong, unified, national body of labor, consisting of the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the Railroad Brotherhoods as the primary need for the welfare of the country in general and the labor movement in particular. The union’s delegates to the next Congress of Industrial Organizations convention were instructed to draft and support suitable resolutions toward that end. The convention also asked the Congress of Industrial Organizations to take the initiative in calling a conference of representatives of organized labor within the United Nations and those countries that have been liberated from fascism, for the purpose of formulating labor’s program for the post-war world and for establishing a world congress of labor.

Education and research.—Expressing the conviction that the strength and progress of the trade-union movement are dependent upon the degree to which workers understand its policies, aims, and aspirations, the delegates directed the general executive board to expand the union’s educational program for the general membership and provide an appropriate course of study as a qualification for election to any office after January 1, 1945. Training courses for shop stewards and committee members were also authorized.

The activities and achievements of the union’s research department were reviewed in detail, and the delegates approved the enlargement of its staff to cope with the increasing research needs of the union.

Other resolutions instructed the incoming officers and the general executive board (a) to incorporate a clause in all union contracts guaranteeing every worker the right to an equal opportunity in employment and upgrading, and forbidding discrimination because of race, color, creed, or national origin, (b) to provide in all agreements specific rules to govern the operation of labor-management committees so that they may function more effectively to increase production and improve employer-worker relations, and to organize such committees where they have not yet been formed, and (c) to promote the organization of women's auxiliaries in every local of the union and assign a special organizer to supervise them.

Changes in Union Constitution

The provision making paid union organizers ineligible for election to the general executive board was rescinded. Another amendment permitting members elected or appointed to a full-time office in the union or any of its affiliates to retain their membership was approved.

A new provision relating to the financial records of port councils provides (1) that financial officers shall use only such bookkeeping and financial records as are approved by the general executive board, and (2) that financial records shall be audited by the national office at least once every 6 months.

Other constitutional changes require (1) that local financial secretaries present a complete financial statement to local membership meetings "at least every month" instead of once in 3 months; (2) that the general executive board be empowered to prepare and enforce an operating budget for locals that are found to be spending funds in excess of their income or in violation of union policy; (3) that direct affiliation with the national union be permitted in localities where the number of members is not sufficient to form a local.

Salaries of the International officers were raised as follows: President, from \$6,200 to \$8,000 per year; vice president, secretary-treasurer, and organizational director, from \$6,000 to \$7,500 each.

Officers and Next Convention

The convention reelected the following officers for the ensuing term of 1 year: President, John Green; vice president, John J. Grogan; secretary-treasurer, Philip H. Van Gelder, who is on leave in the United States Army;³ and organizational director, Thomas J. Gallagher. The convention also elected 10 members of the general executive board, including 4 incumbents and 6 new members.

The next convention is scheduled to be held in 1945, in a city to be designated by the general executive board.

³ Ross Blood, a member of the general executive board, was designated to serve as secretary-treasurer until Mr. Van Gelder's return.

Convention of Canadian Congress of Labor¹

THE fifth annual convention of the Canadian Congress of Labor (C. C. L.) took place between October 16 and October 20, 1944. In all, 494 delegates were present, representing 20 affiliated unions, 17 labor councils and federations, and 54 chartered unions. The total membership in the C. C. L. at the time of the convention was approximately 250,000.²

Address of the President

The Congress' president, in his address, pointed out that experience during the war has shown definitely that full employment is possible and, accordingly, should be maintained in peacetime as well, that State control is essential, and that "free enterprise" cannot do the job successfully. "The war has shown clearly that only through an extension of the principle of public ownership, operation, and control over all aspects of industry will it be possible to bring into being the new social order which has been promised to us after the war is won." He urged that advantage must be taken immediately of the opportunity for transition, provided by the wartime dislocation of the competitive system, before any reversion to the old practices takes place; he favored political action toward that end.

Resolutions Passed by the Conference

Several hundred resolutions were prepared for consideration by the conference. One of those passed dealt with post-war plans and adopted the following as principles for an orderly war-to-peace transition and an adequate and proper basis of living for workers thereafter: (1) that every Canadian has a right to a job with adequate remuneration and to medical care, education, and social security; that every farmer has a right to be paid reasonable prices; and that every businessman has a right to trade, free from unfair competition and domination by monopolies; (2) that labor should have representation on agencies planning reconversion and reconstruction, and that industry councils representing labor, industry, and Government should be formed and should conduct surveys to ascertain what post-war markets will be available and the employment that may be expected; (3) that dismissal pay should be provided for war-plant workers, their future absorption into employment should be given consideration, and hours should be shortened with no reduction in total earnings; (4) that materials for peacetime production should be released when conditions permit, and reconversion should be begun; (5) that adequate provision should be made for veterans' education, training, etc.; (6) that the Government should expand social ownership in carrying out this program, retaining necessary controls, and securing amendment of the British North America Act where necessary to operate the scheme on a national basis.

Another important resolution pledged the C. C. L. to cooperate with ex-servicemen's associations to assist veterans to obtain jobs, fair wages, training, etc.

¹ Data are from Canadian Unionist, Montreal, November 1944; report from John W. Tuthill, United States Embassy at Ottawa, October 26, 1944 (No. 316); and Montreal Gazette, November 22, 1944.

² Official membership in the C. C. L. numbered 245,812 persons in 710 locals on December 31, 1943.

The Congress expressed its determination to maintain the utmost in production, until victory, and reiterated its pledge to "do all in its power to avoid strike action." This resolution occasioned some controversy, initiated by certain delegates who unsuccessfully demanded a complete no-strike pledge.

In its 1943 session, the Congress endorsed the Cooperative Commonwealth Federation (C. C. F.) as the political arm of labor, and recommended that member unions affiliate with it. The C. C. L. itself established a national political action committee. The 1944 convention approved the nonpartisan program worked out by the committee and recommended that it consider organizing Provincial and local political action committees representative of organizations affiliated with the Congress.

The program formulated by the Congress committee stressed provision of full employment of workers at union wages and under union conditions. A considerable broadening of Government activity was advocated, with maintenance of many wartime controls and continued public ownership of Government-owned war plants; social ownership of banking and finance, control of investment, and initiation of a comprehensive program of publicly owned enterprise; national housing, food, fuel, transportation, and radio policies; and an extensive public-works schedule. In the opinion of the committee, the Dominion rather than the Provinces should have the power to enact social and labor legislation, and labor should have increased participation in formulation of Government policies. Legislation suggested by the committee to improve standards for workers would cover adequate social protection, reduced hours without wage loss, removal of wage controls and establishment of minimum wage, and guaranty of collective bargaining. Other points in the committee's program were continuance of union-management production committees, and provision of lay-off pay to supplement unemployment-insurance benefits, making the combined total equal the normal wage.



Convention of Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, 1944¹

THE Trades and Labor Congress of Canada met in Toronto, October 23–30, for its sixtieth ("Diamond Jubilee") convention. Delegates numbered about 700, representing about 329,000 trade-unionists,² including members in the armed forces and on the retired list.

Convention Resolutions

The first resolution, passed unanimously and without discussion, reaffirmed the T. L. C. pledge of no strikes for the duration of the emergency and promised its continued cooperation in the war.

The question of political action was again raised at the 1944 convention. A majority of the delegates approved a resolution instructing the incoming executive of the T. L. C. to take under advisement the establishment of a national nonpartisan political action committee.

¹ Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), December 1944; Manitoba Commonwealth, November 25, 1944; Winnipeg Free Press, November 30, 1944; and Montreal Gazette, November 22, 1944.

² Official membership total for the T. L. C. on December 31, 1943, was 249,250 persons in 2,041 locals.

The nonpartisan nature of such a committee was stressed, and no individual party was endorsed.

Proposals for governmental economic policy.—The creation of a National Planning Commission was urged for the purpose of making post-war plans for the maintenance of full employment. Adequate labor representation on such a commission was requested.

Federal legislation was advocated to dissolve all monopolies or cartels controlling materials or processes affecting employment opportunities of Canadian citizens. On no condition should the Government, in the opinion of the Congress, sell publicly owned war plants and properties except under guarantees from the purchasers that such plants and the manpower attached to them would be utilized, without undue delay, for civilian production. Wherever possible, such plants should be controlled and operated by the Government itself under a joint labor-management committee.

The T. L. C. urged the necessity of the "natural resources of Canada being owned and controlled by the citizens of Canada." The Government was requested to plan immediately for the development of natural resources, such as the St. Lawrence waterways scheme and other contemplated electrification projects. The building and equipping of new and more extensive mental, tuberculosis, and general hospitals was urged.

Reestablishment of ex-service personnel.—A separate resolution urged the Federal Government to establish a special department for the rehabilitation of military personnel, with continuance of military pay and allowances until veterans are satisfactorily placed in peacetime occupations. Cooperation among labor, veterans' organizations, and the Government was urged, to ensure jobs for returning service personnel without throwing others out of work.

Legislation for improved labor conditions.—In the opinion of the convention a maximum 40-hour workweek should be established in all branches of industry, to be reduced progressively to a 6-hour day and a 5-day week without loss in earnings, and with further reduction in hours if necessary. With regard to wages, a minimum yearly wage of \$1,500 was recommended for each employed person. A resolution was passed endorsing the principle of family allowances,³ provided they did not take the place of an adequate wage rate.

Other demands were for a noncontributory sickness and invalidity insurance act providing full compensation during illness; a system of pensions enabling workers to retire at the age of 60 with such allowances as would maintain them in decency and comfort; and revision of the Unemployment Insurance Act to increase benefits to at least two-thirds of the worker's wages for a period of at least 26 weeks. Examination of the Dominion Government's proposed health-insurance scheme was advocated, with amendments to ensure sick people proper medical care and hospitalization. Further recommendations were for paid vacations of at least 2 weeks; raising of the compulsory school-leaving age to at least 16 years; and a Federal slum-clearance program and improvement of the present housing act.

The convention urged that efforts be made to obtain permanent enactment after the war in all the Provinces of existing wartime Federal labor-relations measures, for the purpose of uniformity through-

³ Family-allowance legislation was recently passed by the Federal Government (see *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1944, p. 996).

out the Dominion, and at the same time suggested the following amendments: (1) Compulsory signing of contracts in cases in which unions are certified by the Labor Relations Board; (2) outlawing of company unions; and (3) the granting of a "union shop" if demanded by a majority of the workers. Federal legislation was also urged to provide for the immediate establishment, on the request of a majority of the organized workers, of labor-management committees in all industries, for the facilitation of plant reconversion.

Labor unity.—The convention instructed the executive of the Trades and Labor Congress to give careful study to the possibility of achieving one trade-union center in Canada.

Plans for the creation of a world trade-union federation were approved, as well as participation of the Congress in a world conference. The delegates were instructed to work for the closest coordination of organized labor for "achieving victory, a firm peace, and post-war economic progress." World labor unity was especially emphasized.



Labor Union Membership in Chile, 1943¹

LEGALLY recognized labor unions in Chile numbered 1,524 by the end of 1943, and had 230,800 members. Industrial and craft unions accounted for 35 and 65 percent, respectively, of all unions and 61 and 39 percent of all membership.

The accompanying table indicates the number and membership of industrial and craft unions in each of 22 industry groups on December 31, 1943. Only unions which had been legally recognized under the Chilean Labor Code are listed; consequently, unions with fewer than 25 members, and governmental unions (including unions of the State railways, which employ 25,000 organized workers) are omitted. The figures for 1943 represent an increase of 3.2 percent over 1941 in total number of unions and of 22.1 percent in total membership. During the same period craft unions increased in both number and membership (6.4 and 30.0 percent, respectively), whereas industrial unions decreased 2.4 percent and their membership rose 17.6 percent.

The industry groups having the greatest percentage of all union members in 1943 were mining (31.8 percent) and transportation and transportation equipment (10.3 percent), with textiles (8.6 percent) standing third. Transportation and transportation equipment also accounted for the greatest number of unions (13.5 percent of all) in any one industry; the second greatest numbers were in mining and food, each having 10.8 percent.

More than half of all union membership (116,966 persons or 50.7 percent) was found in 3 industries—mining, transportation and transportation equipment, and textiles. This membership was organized, however, in only 477 unions (31.3 percent of all), the average membership in unions in these 3 groups being 245.2 persons, as compared with an average membership for all unions of 151.4. Membership in the mining unions alone averaged 448 persons.

¹ Data are from report of Daniel L. Horowitz, senior economic analyst, United States Embassy, Santiago, Chile, October 25, 1944 (No. 522); Finanzas, Bancos y Cajas Sociales, 1941, Dirección General de Estadística, Chile; and Código del Trabajo de la República de Chile (concordado y anotado), 3d. ed., Santiago, 1940.

Number and Membership of Legally Recognized Labor Unions in Chile, December 31, 1943, by Industry

Industry	Total unions		Industrial unions		Craft unions	
	Number	Membership	Number	Membership	Number	Membership
Agriculture	16	1,060	4	444	12	616
Banks, insurance, and securities	125	15,535	9	673	116	14,862
Beverages and liquor	38	5,442	21	3,782	17	1,660
Building and construction	56	4,889	9	2,145	47	2,744
Chemical	52	6,281	30	4,681	22	1,600
Electrical	31	8,293	10	5,905	21	2,388
Food	164	16,412	43	6,900	121	9,512
Forestry and fishing	41	3,098	4	208	37	2,890
Hotels and boarding houses	40	3,702	3	249	37	3,453
Leather and leather goods	102	9,086	79	7,338	23	1,748
Livestock raising	1	3,000			1	3,000
Metallurgical	53	6,712	38	5,735	15	977
Mining	164	73,462	86	64,513	78	8,949
Printing, photoengraving, jewelry, and musicians	39	2,164	9	619	30	1,545
Stone, clay, and glass	29	5,375	20	4,713	9	662
Textiles	107	19,778	74	18,104	33	1,674
Tobacco manufacture	2	275	2	275		
Tools and manufacturing equipment	6	1,246	6	1,246		
Transportation and transportation equipment	206	23,726	22	5,419	184	18,307
Woodworking	105	10,048	57	6,436	48	3,612
Other commerce	141	10,633	3	257	138	10,376
Other manufacturing	6	583	3	466	3	117
Total: 1943	1,524	230,800	532	140,108	992	90,692
1941	1,477	189,049	545	119,146	932	69,903
1940	1,888	180,497	629	100,940	1,259	79,557

Industrial unions made up 60.7 percent of all union membership and 34.9 percent of all unions. In the industrial group, 46.0 percent of the membership was in mining and 12.9 percent in textiles—leather and leather goods, food, woodworking, electrical, and metallurgical industries following in the order named.

Of the 90,692 craft-union members, the largest number (20.2 percent) were workers in transportation and transportation equipment, the second largest number (16.4 percent) were in banks, insurance, and securities. Among the unions in banks, insurance, and securities, building and construction, transportation and transportation equipment, food, livestock raising, and forestry and fishing, all or the majority of the unions were of the craft type. The same was true also of agricultural unions, but these included only those agricultural unions which were recognized up to the suspension (in 1938) of the agricultural workers' right to organize.

The Chilean Labor Code recognizes the right of association for only the two types of unions listed above—the craft union and a certain type of industrial union. Although a union of the latter type is not a company union in the United States sense of the word, its membership is limited to workers in one enterprise. Craft unions are those formed by workers in similar crafts or occupations. State employees may not belong to unions. Groups applying for legal recognition must have at least 25 members; no person under 18 years of age may become a member. Legal recognition is not granted to federations of industrial unions except those organized for the promotion of welfare (education, cooperatives, etc.). Directors of unions are required to be nationals of Chile.

Session of British Trades Union Congress, 1944¹

THE seventy-sixth annual convention of the British Trades Union Congress, held in October 1944, endorsed the legal enforcement of minimum wages, as well as the Government's proposals for a high level of employment and a broadened social-insurance system. The Congress also approved continuance of some wartime Government controls in the transition period after cessation of hostilities, and endorsed their general council's policy of permanent national ownership and control of important industries.

Membership of Trades Union Congress

In all, 725 delegates attended the T. U. C. sessions; they represented 6,642,317 members of 190 affiliated unions. Between 1943 and 1944, membership increased by 617,906 and the number of affiliated unions declined by 40, owing to a change whereby cotton unions affiliate through their district organizations instead of individually. One in five of the members represented in 1944 were women; membership of women increased by 141,601 from 1943 to 1944, totaling 1,361,144 in the latter year. Approximately three-fourths of all trade-unionists in the country are affiliated with the T. U. C. Some unions, namely those composed of civil servants, are prevented from affiliating under the terms of the Trade Disputes and Trade-Unions Act of 1927.

General Reconstruction Program

Debates on the post-war reorganization of British industry were based on a report submitted to the T. U. C. by its general council. A concrete program was presented recommending (1) control of the economic system as a whole, (2) control of specific industries, and (3) trade-union participation in that control. Great stress was placed on establishing investment control, through a national investment board, to raise the standard of efficiency in industry and to maintain a high level of investment that would create a state of full employment. The general council's report was accepted by the T. U. C. Other related resolutions endorsed a policy for controlling international cartels, and urged extension of international efforts to raise living standards and develop economically backward areas.

Under the plan advanced, the coal and transport industries would be nationalized immediately. If political opposition should prevent the nationalization of fuel and power and transport industries other than coal and railroads, the report advocated public control of the remaining branches of these industries, to insure coordination. In each basic industry that is not nationalized, preliminary action should be taken at once for unification under a board having labor and employer members filling equally responsible roles. Regarded as next in urgency, after fuel, power, and transport, was the nationalization of

¹ Information is from Great Britain, British Information Services, *Labor and Industry in Britain*, November 1944, and Press releases Nos. L-149 and L-150; *Economist* (London), October 28, 1944; *Labor Party and Trades Union Congress*, *Labor Research*, November 1944; *Labor Party*, *Labor Press Service*, November 1, 1944; *Labor Monthly* (London), November 1944; and report from Waldemar J. Gallman, counselor, U. S. Embassy, London, dated November 1, 1944.

iron and steel production, followed by cotton textiles. A representative of the general council gave assurance that the trade-union movement was prepared to alter its structure and practices to the extent required by the operation of public ownership and a full-employment policy.

The Government's policies as to both employment and social service were accepted as important moves in the right direction. However, the social-insurance proposals were criticized for rejecting the subsistence basis for benefits and for limiting the duration of sickness and unemployment benefits. Some criticism was also made of the proposed removal of employer's liability for the entire cost of industrial-injury insurance (substituting therefor contributions by employer, employee, and the Government) and of other features of the proposed system.

Domestic Controls and Labor Problems

A composite resolution gave approval to continued Government controls in the transition period, especially in regard to finance, raw materials, prices, and the safeguarding of labor conditions. However, the president of the T. U. C. stated that the trade-union movement must examine impartially the question of continuing controls and decide which of these should be carried over into the reconstruction period. He was of the opinion that control of industry must accompany labor control but neither should be entrusted to any authority without the active participation of industrial and labor representatives. Respecting certain specific controls, post-war retention of compulsory arbitration was rejected as was also compulsory direction of manpower, and approval was given to peacetime continuance of some form of guaranteed workweek.

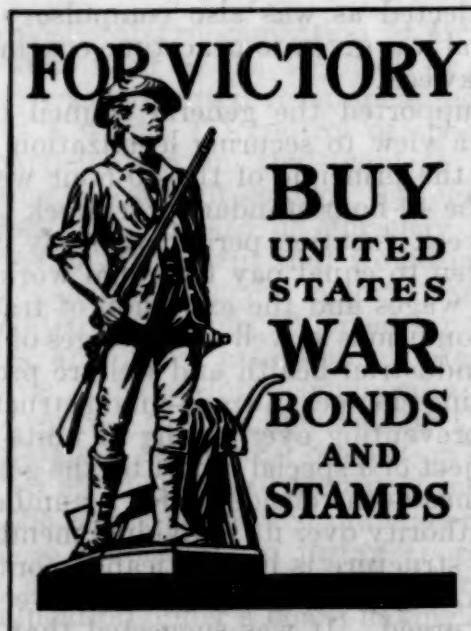
A declaration supported the general council in approaching the Government with a view to securing legalization of collective agreements embodying the principle of the 40-hour week. The T. U. C. policy, to obtain the 40-hour standard workweek throughout industry and an annual 2-week vacation period with pay, was affirmed. Endorsement was given to equal pay for equal work; the legal enforcement of minimum wages and the extension of trade-board powers to improve working conditions as well as the wages of lower-paid workers; and extension of industrial health and welfare provisions.

Means of obtaining changes in trade-union structure and of securing closer unity and preventing overlapping of units in the labor movement were the subject of a special report by the general council. This is a problem that has been considered for a number of years. As the T. U. C. has no authority over its individual member unions and basic alteration in their structure is impracticable, continuance of amalgamation, federation, and joint consultation between the various labor organizations was urged. It was suggested that unions should take into account the changing character of modern industry in defining their jurisdiction and that they should mutually recognize union cards held by workers in related industries. The report was of an interim nature and is to be followed by another in 1945.

International Trade-Union Action

A resolution approved at the 1943 meeting differentiated sharply between the Nazi leaders and the German people; but, in 1944, the delegates approved a resolution stating that the people could not be absolved from all responsibility and that all devastated countries, including Britain, would be entitled to some measure of "reparations in kind" from the Germans to assist in reconstruction. A keen debate preceded the decision on this subject. Another resolution voiced anticipation of the reestablishment of a genuine democratic trade-union movement in Germany.

Authorization was granted to the general council to frame a program enabling the British trade-union movement to play its full part in re-establishing the international working-class organization and to promote establishment of a world-wide international body embracing all bona fide trade-unions. The T. U. C. resolved that the general council should renew its efforts to convene a world trade-union conference for the purpose of exploring the political, economic, and social aspects of post-war problems, working out the principles of just treatment for the German people, and applying them in settling Germany's future.



Industrial Disputes

Strikes in November 1944

THERE were 375 strikes in November 1944, which involved about 200,000 workers and 710,000 man-days of idleness, according to the Bureau's preliminary estimates. Strike idleness amounted to a tenth of 1 percent of the available working time. The number of strikes and number of workers involved were somewhat less than in October, but the amount of idleness was greater. Some of the larger strikes in November are described in the following pages.

The Bureau's strike statistics include all known strikes in continental United States which involve as many as six workers and last as long as a full day or shift. The term "strike" is used to include all stoppages of work due to labor disputes regardless of whether the workers or employers initiate or are responsible for the stoppages. As in the past, the figures include all workers in any plant who were made idle because of a strike in that plant, regardless of whether or not they were all directly involved in the dispute.

Strikes in November 1944, With Comparative Figures for Earlier Periods

Month	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle in month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
November 1944 ¹	375	200,000	710,000	0.10
October 1944 ¹	440	220,000	690,000	.09
November 1943	325	135,804	2,862,607	.38
November 1942	144	52,481	128,164	.02
November 1941	271	227,721	1,396,585	.24
November 1940	207	62,399	739,807	.14
November 1939	178	43,239	1,664,574	.31

¹ Preliminary estimates.

Packard Motor Car Co. strike.—A strike of several hundred metal polishers at the Packard Motor Car Co., Detroit (Mich.), November 3, resulted in the closing of the plant, throwing more than 25,000 employees out of work. The polishers walked out when colored workers were upgraded to polishers' jobs on a basis of plant-wide rather than departmental seniority. Union officers condemned the strike, but granted permission for strikers' representatives to present their case to the national executive board; they also claimed that closing of the plant was unnecessary, as the company carried a sufficient supply of the polished materials to maintain production for several days.

When a protracted stoppage was threatened, the case was referred to the National War Labor Board. The polishers returned to work and the plant was reopened November 10, only to face a strike of Negro workers in protest against dismissal of several of their number who were serving a trial period on the polishers' jobs. The Negro employees returned to work after receiving assurance that the negotiating committee and management would review all dismissals, that the management would warn all supervisors against discrimination, and that in the future leaders would give adequate instructions to all newcomers on these jobs.

Strike of supervisory workers at Wright Aeronautical Corporation.—A demand that the Wright Aircraft Supervisors' Association (independent) be recognized for purposes of negotiating on grievance procedures, wage schedules, a general clarification of working conditions, and a seniority program resulted in the closing of five Wright Aeronautical plants at Paterson, East Paterson, Wood-Ridge, and Fair Lawn (N. J.). The stoppage was preceded by a strike vote of supervisory workers, under the War Labor Disputes Act, on November 1.

The basic issues in dispute had been before the National War Labor Board since October, when an unauthorized strike of supervisors caused the company to close its plants because of lack of supervision. The Board had accepted jurisdiction over issues pertaining to terms and conditions of employment and had referred them to a special panel considering supervisory workers' disputes, but had declined to accept the issue of recognition. The company had been ordered to maintain the status quo on these terms and conditions, pending receipt of the panel's report.

However, following the October strike, it was claimed that the company reclassified certain foremen and supervisors as "leadermen," which included them in the group of production workers. The union held that the immediate cause of the November strike was the failure of the company to observe the Board's order to maintain the status quo on classifications and other employment conditions. The workers returned to work when this issue was referred to the War Labor Board; the question of recognition remained unsettled.

The strikes of supervisory workers in both October and November caused members of the U. A. W.-C. I. O. and the Engineers and Salaried Employees Association, an unaffiliated union, to be idle. In both cases, these two unions maintained that they had no grievances and charged that the company had locked them out. Following the November dispute, the salaried employees demanded pay for their period of "involuntary idleness" but this was refused by the company, and the union requested the New York Regional War Labor Board to name arbitrators to hear the case.

Telephone workers' strike.—This strike originated in Dayton (Ohio), November 17, when members of the Dayton local of the Ohio Federation of Telephone Workers struck to compel the Bell Telephone Co. to discontinue its practice of transferring workers from other communities to Dayton and paying them a substantial living allowance over and above the salary paid to regular local operators. This grievance of the Dayton local had been certified to the Cleveland Regional War Labor Board earlier in November.

The stoppage quickly spread to 32 other Ohio cities and to Washington (D. C.) and Detroit (Mich.). Strike votes were taken in several other

cities but no further stoppages developed. When the strikers disregarded a WLB order to return to work, representatives of the Dayton local and of the Ohio and National Federations were summoned to Washington to show cause why the strike should not be terminated. The following day the Ohio strikers returned to work, and were followed by those in the Washington and Detroit areas. The National War Labor Board then authorized its Cleveland Board to appoint a tripartite panel to hear the Dayton dispute.

Underlying the immediate cause of the strike was the issue of wage rates in the telephone industry. A dispute between the Ohio Bell Telephone Co. and the Ohio Federation, covering wages, job descriptions, overtime pay, and other issues, had been before the Cleveland Board since August. Wage grievances of the Washington workers had been pending before the National Board since September, and wage requests for workers in other areas, including Detroit (Mich.), New York (N. Y.), Memphis (Tenn.), and Louisville (Ky.), were also pending before the Board when these stoppages took place. On December 22 the National War Labor Board announced that a national telephone panel would be established, to make recommendations to the Board on all voluntary and dispute cases involving the telephone industry.

Greater Boston truck-drivers' strike.—Trucking operations in the Boston area were virtually halted when a dissatisfied group within the local union of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers (A. F. of L.) struck in protest against failure of the local officers to schedule an election. The local officers, backed by the international organization, thereupon suspended those who had been active in promoting the strike and stated that an election was not possible since the local union, because of repeated wildcat stoppages, was operating under a trustee appointed by the international union.

When efforts of the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration and the Governor failed to bring agreement, the dispute was certified to the National War Labor Board. After several days of negotiations, the men agreed to return to work, with the understanding that union officers would meet with a committee of the strikers for settlement of the original issues, and the suspended workers would go on trial before union officials for fomenting the 9-day strike.



Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, October 1944

DURING the month of October 1944, the U. S. Conciliation Service disposed of 2,325 situations, as compared with 2,290 situations in September and 1,871 in October 1943.

Of the 309 strikes and lockouts handled, 276 were settled successfully; 33 cases were certified to the War Labor Board in which strikes occurred during negotiations, but in 28 cases a Commissioner of Con-

ciliation had effected a return-to-work agreement prior to certification of the case. The records indicate that 176 situations were threatened strikes and 1,605 were controversies in which the employer, employees, or other interested parties asked for assignment of Conciliators to assist in the adjustment of disputes. Altogether, 496 disputes were certified during the month to the War Labor Board, and in 2 cases Federal agencies other than the War Labor Board assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 235 situations included 94 arbitrations, 10 technical services, 22 investigations, and 109 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

Cases Closed by U. S. Conciliation Service, October 1944, by Type of Situation and Disposition

Method of handling	Total	Strikes and lockouts	Threat- ened strikes	Contro- versies	Other situations
All situations	2,325	309	176	1,605	235
Settled by conciliation	1,592	275	147	1,170	—
Certified to National War Labor Board ¹	496	33	29	434	—
Referred to other Federal agencies	1	1	—	—	—
Referred to nongovernmental agencies	1	—	—	1	—
Decisions rendered in arbitration	94	—	—	—	94
Technical services completed	10	—	—	—	10
Investigations, special services	131	—	—	—	131

¹ Of these, 28 were settled prior to referral.

Labor Laws and Decisions

Federal Labor Legislation in 1944¹

THE legislative year of 1944 brought few changes in Federal labor laws. The chief labor legislation adopted by Congress dealt with employment rights and unemployment compensation of veterans, the continuation of the Fair Employment Practice Committee, the recruitment and protection of agricultural workers essential to the prosecution of the war, and collective-bargaining contracts under the National Labor Relations Act. The Stabilization Act was amended to specify the procedures to be followed in wage disputes between employees and carriers subject to the Railway Labor Act.

Industrial Relations

By a rider to the 1944 Appropriations Act, the National Labor Relations Board was given full discretion to challenge the validity of contracts entered into with allegedly company-dominated unions. (As interpreted by the Comptroller General, a former rider prohibited this action unless a charge had been filed within 3 months from the date of the execution of the contract.) The Board is also permitted to proceed upon charges of unfair labor practices filed by employees of the plant in cases in which a contract has been renewed, even though no changes are made in the terms of the contract, if the charges are filed within 3 months after the date of renewal.

Under an amendment to the Stabilization Act, the procedures of the Railway Labor Act are to be followed in the case of a wage dispute between employees and carriers subject to the act. The National Mediation Board or other agency established under the Railway Labor Act is required to make a specific finding and certification that changes proposed are consistent with laws controlling inflation. This finding and certification are to be conclusive, and the employees and carriers are authorized, by agreement, to put into effect the changes proposed by the settlement.

Fair Employment Practices

Under an Executive order issued by the President in 1941, the Fair Employment Practice Committee was established for the purpose of preventing discrimination in the employment of any person in war industries or in the Government by reason of race, creed, color, or national origin. Congress, in an amendment to the War Agencies Appropriation Act, provided expenses for the carrying out of any functions "lawfully" vested in the Committee by Executive orders.

¹ Prepared by Division of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor. This article includes all major labor legislation enacted by Congress up to December 1, 1944.

However, the amendment contained several limiting provisions. These limitations permit any defendant in a proceeding brought by the Committee to appeal to the President, and provide that no rule, regulation, or order may be issued which repeals, amends, or modifies any law enacted by Congress. The amendment also provides that the Committee may not "initiate, investigate, or prosecute any proceeding against any person, firm or corporation which seeks to effect the seizure or operation of any plant or other property" by Federal authority for failure to obey any rule, regulation, or order of the Fair Employment Practice Committee.

Recruitment and Protection of Agricultural Workers

The Sugar Act of 1937, including its labor provisions, was extended until December 31, 1946. This act requires the Secretary of Agriculture to establish sugar quotas, levies a tax on the manufacture of sugar, and authorizes conditional payments to growers of sugarcane and sugar beets. To receive the conditional payments, growers must comply with acreage allotments for their farms, pay fair and reasonable wages to field laborers as determined annually by the Secretary of Agriculture, and comply with the child-labor standards set in the act. These standards include a prohibition of employment of children under 14 years and a maximum 8-hour day for children between 14 and 16 years of age.

Another act appropriated \$30,000,000, to be expended by the War Food Administrator, which was available only until December 31, 1944. The Administrator was authorized to use this appropriation in the recruiting, placement, and training of workers for the production, harvesting, and preparation for markets of agricultural commodities essential to the prosecution of the war. It could also be used for transportation, supervision, subsistence, protection, health, and burial services, and shelter for such workers and their families, as well as for the lease, repair, and operation of labor-supply centers and other facilities.

Rights of Veterans

The Servicemen's Readjustment Act (Pub. No. 346), generally known as the "G. I. Bill of Rights," makes provision for the continuance of the education of discharged veterans at Government expense; authorizes loans for the acquisition of dwellings, farms, and business property, of which not more than \$2,000 is guaranteed by the Federal Government; and provides unemployment benefits for veterans out of work, for a period not over 52 weeks. A Veterans' Employment Board is created, consisting of the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs, the Director of the Selective Service System, and the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency, to determine matters of policy in the administration of the Veterans' Employment Service of the U. S. Employment Service. For a summary of the act, see *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1944 (p. 383).

Reconversion, Retraining, and Reemployment

The Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion was created to be responsible for the general coordination of the Nation's war efforts and plans for reconversion to peace. The Director of this agency is

assisted by an advisory board of 12, of whom 3 are to represent management, 3 labor, and 3 agriculture. The act sets forth a number of definite policies relating to demobilization and reconversion, and establishes in the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion the Retraining and Reemployment Administration, which supervises the activities of all Federal agencies (except the Veterans Administration) dealing with retraining, reemployment, vocational education, and vocational retraining, and coordinates the work of State and local agencies in this field. Loans to States for unemployment-compensation purposes, from Federal social-security funds, are also authorized.¹



Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor²

Decisions Relating to Fair Labor Standards Act

DISAPPROVAL of plan to avoid overtime pay.—The Supreme Court of the United States in the case of *Walling v. Helmerich & Payne*,³ decided that an employer who used a "Poxon plan"⁴ contract for the sole purpose of avoiding an increase in the wages of his employees, when overtime work should have increased them under the Fair Labor Standards Act, violated that act.

Before the act, the employer had paid a flat sum for each shift or tour, regardless of the number of tours or hours worked in the week, and had paid no overtime. The contract followed the Poxon plan by arbitrarily dividing each tour into two parts for bookkeeping purposes, paying for the hours in the first part at an agreed "base or regular" rate and for the hours in the second part at one and one-half times the "base rate," calling the latter "overtime" hours. The "base rate" was so calculated that, with the "overtime," it produced the same total pay for the tour as before. For instance, on the 8-hour tour, the last 4 hours were "overtime" hours. As to a tour of this length, although the contract also provided that the "base" rate should not apply to more than 40 hours per week, it was only in the extremely unlikely case of a man's working over 80 hours that any employee would receive as his week's pay any more than the prior tour rate times the number of tours worked. Under the new contract, the old tour rates multiplied by the tours worked would still be the simple method of computing wages for each pay period and they could be so figured in complete disregard of total hours worked and the requirements of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The decision of the Supreme Court reversed the circuit and district courts which had decided that the Poxon plan contract must be considered as complying with the act because of the leeway afforded to private agreement by the decision in *Walling v. Belo Corp.*, 316 U. S. 624. The Supreme Court, however, stated that that decision did not rule the case. The split-day plan fits neither the

¹ For an analysis of the law, and of its social-security provisions, see Social Security Bulletin, October 1944 (pp. 10-15); War Mobilization and Reconversion Act of 1944, by Wilbur J. Cohen and Jessica H. Barr.

² Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of the significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached, based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

³ — U. S. —, November 6, 1944.

⁴ This is also known as the "Arizona" plan or "split-day" plan. It has been publicized through trade channels and is widely used in the mining industry in the Western States and Alaska; it is most frequently referred to by the name of its supposed originator.

purpose nor the mechanics of the overtime provisions of the act, since it neither spreads employment nor gives additional compensation for working more than the first 40 hours in a week; on the contrary, it distorts the 40-hour limit on work for straight-time pay into an 80-hour limit. The Supreme Court said that the words "regular rate," as used in the act, "obviously mean the hourly rate actually paid for the normal non-overtime workweek," which the act sets at 40 hours. In this instance, the regular rate could be calculated properly by dividing the tour rate by the hours in the tour, or the weekly wage by the hours actually worked in the week, regardless of the number of tours worked.

The act preserves freedom of contract in the form of freedom for bona fide wage negotiations between employer and employee (provided the statutory minimum wage is respected) but this freedom does not include the right to compute the regular rate in a wholly unrealistic and artificial manner so as to negate the statutory purposes.

In this case, the Supreme Court also decided that the employer's voluntary discontinuance of a practice which it still claimed was lawful, occurring after action had been brought, did not make the case moot; and the court entered an injunction against the employer to prevent resumption of the Poxon plan.

Transport of goods as "production."—Hand truckers and pushers, truck drivers and helpers, who handle unfinished garments moving within a State from and to manufacturers, contractors, and jobbers are engaged in production for "commerce" if the goods when finished will move in interstate commerce, but are not engaged "in commerce" under the Fair Labor Standards Act. The finishing, handling, and other work done by contractors, jobbers, or manufacturers are not a mere pause or formal interruption in an interstate journey which does not break its continuity as interstate commerce. Based on this analysis, the United States District Court, in *Walling v. Comet Carriers*,⁴⁸ held the Fair Labor Standards Act applicable to the work of the above employees, except that truck drivers and helpers are exempt, by section 13 (b) (1), from the overtime provisions in any week in which their work includes driving across State lines on even 1 day.

Power-plant employees under Fair Labor Standards Act.—An engineer in a power plant, whose work is related to production of electricity distributed to customers within the same State, claimed rights under the Federal Wage and Hour Law. It was proved that only 4 percent of the power was distributed to a railroad to operate signals for movement of interstate trains, a telephone company completing interstate calls, an airport guiding planes on interstate flights, and a post office, a bus company, a produce company and an express company dealing with interstate movement of goods and persons. The circuit court of appeals decided that the employee came within the act. The small percent of current used for interstate activities did not alter this conclusion, since the engineer's services in producing it were not merely sporadic and isolated but essential to the movement of commerce and he was therefore to be considered as engaged in commerce. Further, the employer utility was neither a retail nor a service establishment, in terms of the exemption under section 13 (a) (2) of the act (*New Mexico Public Service Co. v. Engel* — Fed. (2d) — (C. C. A. 10), November 3, 1944).

⁴⁸—Fed. Supp. (2d).

Decisions of War Manpower Commission

Self-provoked discharge bars job release.—The regional appeals committee of the War Manpower Commission, in New York, refused a job release to a shipyard worker who was discharged by his employer, as required by a union-shop agreement, after the worker had refused to join the union. The committee found that the worker, not liking the job, had deliberately failed to join the union in order to force a discharge, expecting in that way to free himself for other employment. Under the circumstances, he was not considered as a discharged employee.

Employer has first right to utilize higher skill.—The national appeals committee of the War Manpower Commission refused a release to a mechanical engineer who claimed non-utilization of a higher skill. This occurred because the employee had refused to permit his qualifications for higher-skilled work to be analyzed by his current employer for the purpose of reassigning him within the employer's field of work. In such cases, it was held, the current employer has the first right to use the higher skill claimed, if it exists, before the employee may be considered available for other employment.

Release for personal hardship.—A regional review committee of the War Manpower Commission denied a job release on the ground of personal hardship in a case in which the "hardship" consisted of an objection to working beside Negro workers. The validating of such a reason would put pressure on the employer to violate the war policy of the Government as represented by the Fair Employment Practice Committee and Executive orders.

Employer's need v. employee hardship.—The national appeals committee of the WMC held that the urgency of an employer's need for workers cannot be considered as having a bearing in a case of personal hardship. The case involved the employee's commuting a 50-mile distance daily to his current job at a time when another position, requiring the same skill, was available in his home town.

No immediate referral after provoked discharge.—An employee in a plant seized by the Government was discharged because of willful disobedience of an order given by the officer in charge. He appealed from the officer's refusal of a release. The War Manpower Commission decided that the refusal to work under proper orders could not be inferred to have stopped at the moment of his induced discharge. In fixing a later date after which referral might be made, the chairman stated the policy in such cases to be that, in the absence of some act by the employee demonstrating his willingness to obey the orders, it cannot be concluded that his attitude has changed; therefore, his availability should be deferred by at least the 60 days established for an employee who merely quits his job without disobedience to orders.

Decisions on Seniority Rights

Preservation of seniority rights.—Under a union contract requiring an employee, laid off because of a reduction in force, to file his address in writing with the employer periodically in order to retain seniority, the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit in *Sanders v. Louisville & N. R. Co.*, 144 Fed. (2d) 485, decided that failure to file notice

destroyed the seniority claim. This was true, even though the employer actually knew the employee's whereabouts at all times. It was held that the rights of other employees on the seniority roster were involved and the requirement, which was intended to eliminate mistake, conflict, and discrimination, must be enforced.

In *Samuelson v. Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen*, 151 Pac. (2d) 347, the Supreme Court of Wyoming dealt with a case in which a bus driver, whose work post was changed, relied on assurances of his employer's representative that he would not lose accrued seniority, although the union at the new post gave no credit for service elsewhere. The court decided that seniority rules are the business of the union and its members; that the agreed system is merely put into effect through the contract with the employer who has no other power or responsibility as to seniority. Further, the regulations of a union as to seniority create no such vested right in the union member as cannot be modified or destroyed by a later change of the regulation if made in accordance with the union constitution. Such a change, so made, affords the courts no basis for interference.

Seniority rights in demotions.—The Regional War Labor Board of Detroit decided, in re *Gear Grinding Machine Co.* (Case No. 111-9348, HO, September 27, 1944), that although foremen are not covered by a union contract, when employees previously promoted to supervisory jobs because of war expansion are laid off in a cutback, they are entitled to reinstatement on hourly rate jobs on the basis of their accumulated seniority. This seniority includes credit for time spent in the supervisory position. The payment of back wages from the time of discharge to the time of reinstatement was not ordered.

National War Labor Board Decisions

Maintenance clause denied to union which struck after strike vote.—The National War Labor Board held that the filing of notice and taking of strike vote under the War Labor Disputes Act, while avoiding the specific criminal penalties which would follow the omission of such action, did not sanction the wartime strike which followed, since the policy of that act is to prevent such strikes and not merely to provide a cooling-off period. The Board therefore refused to allow maintenance-of-membership and check-off provisions to the unions involved (the 13 Wisconsin, Illinois, and Iowa Millwork Cos., Case No. 111-2356-D).

Action postponed on dispute involving company union.—The National War Labor Board recently directed its regional board at Cleveland to suspend action in a dispute between the Weirton Steel Co. and the Weirton Independent Union, Inc., because of the fact that the National Labor Relations Board had commenced contempt proceedings against the employer for failure to obey an order to disestablish the union which the National Labor Relations Board had found to be company dominated. The suspension was for such period as the contempt case might be before the court (Case No. 111-8439-D, September 4, 1944).

Policy considerations in overtime allowances.—A regional war labor board ordered Nestle's Milk Products, Inc.⁵ to pay time and a half for hours over 40 (instead of hours over 48 as its prior contract had

⁵ Case No. 111-7310-D, Regional Board VI, October 5, 1944.

provided), on the basis of prevailing practice and relief from inequities. The employer argued that section 7 (a) (2) of the War Labor Disputes Act, in providing that the War Labor Board shall not take action inconsistent with the Fair Labor Standards Act, made improper a directive to pay overtime, since section 7 (c) of the Fair Labor Standards Act granted the employer an exemption from its overtime provisions. The regional war labor board considered that the company by its voluntary act in contracting for overtime payments in any form, had waived its exempt position, insofar as it might be a counterweight to the inequity which resulted from the fact that its employees were not in the position of almost all workers in American industry. The others are receiving overtime for all work after 40 hours or have received increases in their basic wage rates in lieu of such overtime.

Proper limitations on check-off.—The National War Labor Board granted a union request for check-off of dues, assessments, and initiation fees, refused to include check-off of union fines, and rejected a proposal to limit the amount of assessments which might be checked off, on the ground that to do so would be an unwarranted interference with internal affairs of the union, especially since no need for such interference was apparent (*In re Douglas Aircraft*, Case No. 111-7661-D, October 20, 1944).

National Labor Relations Board Decisions

Predetermination of "company" union in election case.—The National Labor Relations Board, in the matter of *Baltimore Transit Co.*,⁶ decided that it had power to investigate the relation between a union seeking a place on the ballot in a representation election and an organization previously disestablished. The Board supported its action on the necessity of excluding disestablished unions from the ballot, without risking indefinite delay. It rejected the contention that the relation of the new union to the old could be decided only in a complaint or contempt proceeding against the employer and decided that alternative procedures were available to the Board. Later, the Board was enjoined from holding the election from which it had barred the "successor" unions, because the union could not appeal and would be irreparably injured.

Bargaining history disregarded for protection of class B union members.—Although a single union, whose jurisdiction included all persons who work before the camera, had for 7 years bargained with the employer for all classes of union members, the National Labor Relations Board recognized an unaffiliated union as an appropriate representative for movie extras who formed part of the entire group. Among other factors considered was the organizational structure of the contracting union, which showed a recognition of the divergence of interest between the extras and the professionals by confining extras to a separate class of membership with limited voting rights. (*In re RKO Radio Pictures, Inc.*, 59 N. L. R. B. No. 32, November 8, 1944.)

Union activities in campaign before representation election.—An affiliated union, in campaigning prior to a representation election, in

⁶—N. L. R. B.—October —, 1944.

^{6a} *Brotherhood, etc., of Transit Employees v. Madden*, — Fed. Supp. (2d) —, U. S. D. C., Md., December 16, 1944.

which it defeated an unaffiliated union, had distributed leaflets which decried the usefulness of unaffiliated unions, claiming that the latter were not recognized as legitimate labor organizations by governmental boards and agencies. The unsuccessful union appealed to the National Labor Relations Board to set aside the election. In its decision (*In re Corn Products Refining Co.*, 58 N. L. R. B. No. 263) the National Labor Relations Board refused to upset the election because, though it found the language of the leaflet "wholly offensive and unethical," the record indicated that the statements were what is familiar to employees generally as "propaganda," they were not represented as statements made by the Government agencies, and they did not prevent a free and uncoerced election.

Employer's leaflet interpreted by his later actions.—In the matter of *Anderson Mfg. Co.*, 58 N. L. R. B. No. 271, the National Labor Relations Board ordered the employer to cease unfair labor practices. One such asserted practice involved a leaflet which the employer distributed just prior to a plant election, containing the statement that he preferred to bargain individually with his employees. The Board decided that although this was not coercive on its face, the leaflet must be judged as coercive in the light of the employer's later refusal to bargain with the union after it won the election.

Decisions Relating to Federal Employers' Liability Act

Wider scope under 1939 amendment.—The Court of Appeals of Kentucky in the case of *Louisville & N. R. Railway Co. v. Stephens*, 182 S. W. (2d) 447, decided that the Federal Employers' Liability Act, as amended, permits recovery in an action for death of a locomotive fireman who was running a train of empty coal cars from a make-up point in Kentucky to another point in Kentucky. Some of the empties had begun their movement outside the State and some of them, when loaded, were consigned to points outside the State. The court held that this was sufficient, within the wording of the 1939 amendment, to make the act applicable to the fireman as an employee, any part of whose duties shall be the furtherance of interstate commerce or shall "in any way directly or closely and substantially, affect such commerce."

Injury to railroad employee riding on pass.—In *Sassaman v. Pa. R. R. Co.*, 144 Fed. (2d) 950, the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit had occasion to apply the Federal Employers' Liability Act (without the 1939 amendment) to the following situation. A train dispatcher working in Jersey City, having completed his work, rode on his employer's train from Jersey City to Newark, where he lived, using a pass. He was injured in alighting at the Newark station. The court decided that he had no right of recovery under the Federal act because his presence on his employer's premises was not discharging a duty of his employment, even though leaving the place of employment after the day's work is over is under some circumstances part of that duty. The employee was not required to travel on the train and had the option of other methods of going home.

In traveling upon the pass to which he was entitled because of his length of service with the railroad, he was a paying passenger. Therefore, a release of liability printed upon the back of the pass would not prevent his recovering under State law if he could establish a common-

law liability on the part of the railroad. Under either State law or the Hepburn Act,⁷ this pass must be considered as something other than a "free" pass since he received it as compensation for a long term of service, and since it was not a "free" pass, the release of liability was not valid.

Decisions Under State Labor Laws

Picketing to extract initiation fees from an employer held unlawful.—The Supreme Court of Michigan in *Silkworth v. Local 575*⁸ enjoined a truck drivers' union from picketing the bulk storage plant of a distributor whose employees were not union members. The court found that the union had failed to organize the distributor's drivers and had then engaged in peaceful picketing to persuade the distributor to pay the initiation fees to the union for his employees who still did not wish to join the union. The court held that to unionize employees against their will by thus coercing their employer was not a lawful end, and this fact, and not the absence of a labor dispute directly involving picketers and picketed, made even peaceful picketing unlawful.

Collective bargaining for city employees.—The Maryland Circuit Court in *Mugford v. Mayor, etc., of Baltimore*⁹—a taxpayer's suit to declare invalid a union-city contract—granted the injunction, drawing distinctions between what may lawfully be agreed upon and what may not, in a contract involving a municipality. The existing contract, although disclaiming the closed shop and expressly reserving to the individual employee the right to bargain for himself, obligated the city to recognize no representative but the particular union in collective bargaining. This constituted a preference which it was improper for the city to grant.

The court found that the contract might validly have bound the city to bargain solely with this union as to its own members, provided nonmembers were left free to do such individual or collective bargaining as they might choose. Enforcement of a check-off provision was prohibited because it was an inseparable part of the invalid contract. However, the clause itself would have been proper if confined to employees who voluntarily agreed to the deduction. In such case it would not be an illegal assignment or illegal political contribution, as was argued, but the city would be acting as the employee's agent in paying his union dues while his voluntary, written order to do so remained operative.

Workmen's Compensation Act does not destroy common-law claim as to occupational disease.—In the case of *Pershing Quicksilver Co. v. Thiers*, 152 Pac. (2d) 432, the Supreme Court of Nevada had to decide whether a common-law right of action for negligent failure of the employer to supply a safe place for work was destroyed by that State's Industrial Insurance and Workmen's Compensation Acts. The negligent condition in the plant resulted in a worker's developing mercury poisoning. The text of the act made workmen's compensation the exclusive remedy "on account of an injury" suffered in the course of employment, but the act provided compensation for accident only. By interpreting "injury" as "injury resulting from accident," the court's decision sustained the employee's right to sue at common

⁷ 49 U. S. C. sec. 1 (7).

⁸ — N. W. (2d) —, October 11, 1944.
⁹ — Atl. (2d) —, November 15, 1944.

law. The poisoning did not result from accident. The court refused to infer that the legislature had intended to destroy a worker's rights in any broader field than that in which it supplied a substitute remedy.

Collective bargaining by supervisory employees.—The New York State Labor Relations Board, in the case of *Goldsmith & Perlman v. Millinery, etc., Local*¹⁰ recognized three foremen and one designer (no one of whom worked under any other) as an appropriate unit of employees for collective bargaining. Because they worked together, and each supervised some rank-and-file employees, and the foremen did some designing, they had common interests.

In another situation, involving superintendents of apartment houses (each building having its separate superintendent) who act as supervisors of their separate groups of employees, the recognition granted to a union by the Board was approved and its order was enforced by the New York Supreme Court in *New York State Labor Relations Board v. Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.*¹¹ Substantial evidence was found for considering each superintendent as an employee, even though he acted as an employer toward his subordinates. The interpretation of collective bargaining as requiring representation of more than one individual was found valid by the court in the narrow circumstance of a single employee in a single shop without combination with others, but considered inapplicable to a combination of many similarly situated employees of single shops in the same trade, the situation which existed here and is generally characteristic of this business. The legislation to be construed can properly be understood to cover this situation and does not violate the constitutional right of freedom of contract.

Miscellaneous Decisions

Political contributions by unions.—The California Superior Court in Los Angeles, in the case of *Trent v. Industrial Union*,¹² issued a temporary injunction to prevent the use of union funds or special assessments in congressional election campaigns. In the same proceedings, it refused an injunction against the use of such funds to fight the proposed constitutional amendment which would have wiped out the closed shop. The court's action involved the interpretation of section 9 of the War Labor Disputes Act (Smith-Connally Act).

Civil rights of union members.—In *Sullivan v. McFetridge*, 50 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 385, a State court in New York enjoined further action by an international union against a local union official because the union constitution gave the international no right to try charges but only to consider appeals from trial boards of local unions. In addition, the court declared that the vague and indefinite charges (implying acts of moral turpitude which might constitute crimes under the State law), which were the basis upon which the official was to be tried, denied him a fundamental right in that they did not state time, place, or circumstance. When serious accusations are made and the outcome of a trial may affect character, reputation, and livelihood, the court said, then the same criteria as to notice of details of the

¹⁰ Case No. SE 10300, November 20, 1944.

¹¹ — N. Y. Supp. (2d) —, November 13, 1944.

¹² Not reported: no opinion filed.

charge must be met in trials before unions and other associations as would be required in court proceedings.

Ex-employee enjoined from disclosing trade secret.—An employee, formerly employed in an executive capacity in which he supervised the development of a secret process for the bonding of aluminum to steel by professional employees of his then employer, was enjoined, after a change in employment, from disclosing to his new employer any information acquired as to the process while in his former post, except knowledge which is general public property. To be a trade secret such as must be kept confidential, the process must have been treated as secret by his former employer but need not meet the tests of novelty and invention which are required for securing a patent. This decision was rendered in the case of *Fairchild Engine & Airplane Corporation v. Cox*, 50 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 643, by the Supreme Court of New York County.



Recent Labor Legislation in Saskatchewan¹

BROAD legislation affecting labor was enacted in Saskatchewan in a special 17-day session of the legislature, ended November 10, 1944, and was to be put into effect by order of the Lieutenant Governor at a later date. The Saskatchewan Trade-Union Act of 1944 established the right to organize and bargain collectively. It also provided for check-off of union dues and maintenance-of-membership clauses. As the Province of Saskatchewan contained only 7.79 percent of Canada's total population at the time of the 1941 census and is primarily agricultural rather than industrial, this sweeping legislation affects a relatively small number of persons. The same legislative session also passed certain farm-security measures, provided for a broad general health program, and authorized the Provincial Government to enter into industrial enterprise. The legislature put into effect the immediate program of the Cooperative Commonwealth Federation (C.C.F.)—a political party which won its first majority in June 1944 on a pledge to institute socialism in Saskatchewan.

Prior to the meeting of the legislature the C. C. F. Government had raised the minimum wage to 35 cents per hour in the eight principal cities of the Province. All workers were covered, with the exception of civil servants and domestic and agricultural workers. The increase raised minimum wages to the minimum-wage ceiling fixed by the National War Labor Board for war industry, and gave Saskatchewan the highest minimum in Canada. A 48-hour week was also established, with overtime on a pro rata basis for each hour worked over the regular 48-hour period. The Government has stated that it plans still further improvement of wages and hours, and is seeking permission from the Federal Government to establish a 50-cent minimum.

¹ Data are from the Canadian Yearbook 1943-44 (Ottawa, 1944); Canadian Forum (Toronto), December 1944; Industrial Canada (Toronto), November 1944; Manitoba Commonwealth (Winnipeg), November 25, 1944; Winnipeg Free Press, October 11, November 15 and 22, and December 2, 1944; Montreal Gazette November 4 and December 1, 1944; Labor (Washington, D. C.), September 30 and November 4, 1944; New Leader (New York), November 11, 1944; and report from Walter S. Reineck, consul, United States Consulate at Regina, November 17, 1944 (No. 41).

Labor Relations Acts

The Saskatchewan Trade-Union Act of 1944 established the right of workers to organize in or to form trade-unions² and to bargain collectively with their employers. A representation vote may be ordered on the application of a union in which at least 25 percent of the employees of an establishment are members or which they have designated (in writing) as their choice; a majority vote determines the representative trade-union, provided that a majority of those eligible to vote do so. The act covers any employer of three or more employees, or of less than three, if one employee belongs to a trade-union, including in its membership employees of more than one employer; the Provincial Government is included as an employer. Unfair labor practices of both employers and employees are defined by the act, and penalties are provided.

At the request of an employee and the representative trade-union, the check-off of union dues from the employee's earnings is obligatory upon the employer and is to be continued until the employee withdraws his request. Every collective agreement entered into after the Trade-Union Act comes into force shall contain a maintenance-of-membership clause and a stipulation that all new employees shall, within 30 days after the date of their employment, apply for membership in the union; in agreements previously concluded such a clause and stipulation shall be deemed to be included, if requested by the trade-union involved. Veterans of the present war may be excluded from this provision by order of the Lieutenant Governor. Every collective agreement must remain in force for at least 1 year; thereafter, 1 month's notice is required for termination of the agreement.

To administer the act, the Lieutenant Governor in Council is to appoint a Labor Relations Board composed of seven members, with equal representation of employees and employers and, if desirable, the general public. Included among the powers conferred upon the Board is that of requiring an employer to disestablish a company-dominated union. Also, a trade-union may make an agreement with the employer to refer disputes for final settlement to the Board. The Minister of Labor is empowered to establish boards of conciliation to investigate, conciliate, and report upon labor disputes.

Orders or decisions of the Labor Relations Board are enforceable by the courts. However, no order of the Board may be appealed or reviewed. The Board also may request that a controller take possession of any business, plant, or premises of an employer who has willfully disregarded or disobeyed an order filed by the Board and to operate it on behalf of the Government, until the Lieutenant Governor is satisfied that, upon return of the property, the order of the Board will be obeyed.

Vacations With Pay

Two weeks' annual vacation with pay was authorized for all employees, except agricultural workers and members of an employer's family. The vacation may be taken, in one 2-week period or two 1-week periods, within 10 months after the employee becomes entitled to it. The vacation is to be increased by the number of any special

² "Trade-union" is defined as a labor organization which is not company dominated.

holidays occurring during the leave period. Remuneration is at the rate of one twenty-sixth of the employee's total wage during the immediately preceding year. The employee is forbidden to engage in paid employment while on leave.

Workers with more favorable conditions than those provided in the act are not affected.

General Legislation

State enterprise.—An amendment to the Natural Resources Department Act empowers the Government to engage directly in business for the industrial development of the Province's natural resources. Lands and plants may be purchased, leased, or otherwise acquired, and may be developed as business enterprises in the interests of the people of Saskatchewan.

Health services.—The legislature enacted provisions for establishment of a health plan through the designation of full-time health regions and the organization of a health-planning commission, which laid the foundations for development of a scheme of State medicine. The various factors which were discussed included medicinal needs, inventories, medical training, post-graduate study, research, clinical and university facilities, etc. Free medical and hospital treatment are provided for old-age pensioners, the mentally deficient, and various other classes of persons.

Farm security.—A farm security act and supplementing legislation, designed to ease the debt burden of the farmer and give him protection in years of crop failure, were enacted.

Administrative additions.—Four administrative departments were established in the recent legislative session, namely, the departments of labor, cooperation and cooperative development, social welfare, and reconstruction and rehabilitation. In addition, a reconstruction fund was authorized to the amount of \$5,000,000, to be raised through the sale of domestic bonds.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wage Rates in the Manufacture of Molded Plastic Products in Chicago, July 1944¹

Summary

INFORMATION regarding the wage structure of the new and growing plastics industry is afforded by a study of the manufacture of molded plastic products in the Chicago wage area² made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in July 1944. This branch of the industry, unlike the manufacture of plastic materials, shows substantial concentration in and about Chicago.

Straight-time hourly earnings of male workers in the summer of 1944 ranged from an average of 65 cents for hand truckers to an average of \$1.51 for class A tool and die makers. Women finishers, the largest occupational class, averaged 65 cents, and compression molders, the highest-paid women workers, averaged 91 cents.

Nature of the Industry

Molded plastic products are widely used for civilian and military purposes. In addition to household wares, toys and gadgets, they include receivers for field telephones, electrical fuse and switch boxes, radio cabinets and controls, covers and cases for instruments, and scores of other articles of industrial or military importance.

Only the molding of plastic powders by compression or injection and the finishing of such products are dealt with in the present report. Plants producing machined, laminated, stamped, or extruded plastic products are specifically excluded from the Bureau's study, as were also plants engaged in the manufacture of basic plastic materials in the form of powder, flakes, liquids, lumps, sheets, rods, or tubes.

The 20 establishments studied, which comprise virtually all of the Chicago companies in this industry with 9 or more wage earners, employed approximately 2,700 workers at the time of the survey. Most of the establishments were small. Only 7 employed more than 100 wage earners, and none employed as many as 1,000. Women workers, employed principally as finishers, constituted about half of the labor force.

Detailed wage information was obtained for 26 male and 4 female occupational classifications covering 1,926 workers, or nearly three-fourths of the total. All data were obtained from pay rolls and other plant records by field representatives of the Bureau.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by E. B. Harris and Woodrow C. Linn (Chicago regional office).

² For purposes of this study the area was considered to include Cook County, Ill., and Lake County, Ind.

All of the plants reported the payment of overtime rates of time and a half for all hours worked over 40 a week. Five firms paid such premium rates after 8 hours' work per day.

All of the establishments were operating on a two- or three-shift basis. Payment of additional compensation to employees on late shifts was typical, only three plants reporting no shift differentials. Such payments varied from plant to plant; some were paid in flat amounts per hours, while others were based upon a percentage of gross earnings. Only two of the companies in this relatively new industry were operating under terms of collective-bargaining agreements.

Average Hourly Earnings

Occupational earnings of male workers varied from 65 cents an hour for hand truckers to \$1.51 for class A tool and die makers (see table). Over half of the men studied were classified in nine occupational groups with averages of \$1.00 or more an hour. Earnings of the women ranged from 65 cents an hour for finishers to 91 cents for semi-automatic compression molders.

Average Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupations in the Molded Plastic Products Industry, Chicago Wage Area, July 1944

Occupation, class, and sex	Number of establish- ments	Num- ber of work- ers	Straight-time hourly earnings		
			General average	Lowest estab- lishment average	Highest estab- lishment average
<i>Males</i>					
Maintenance:					
Carpenters, class B.....	4	5	\$0.95	\$0.80	\$1.00
Electricians, class A.....	3	4	1.19	1.15	1.25
Maintenance men, class A.....	4	4	1.16	1.10	1.20
Maintenance men, class B.....	4	7	.77	.63	.90
Tool and die makers, class A.....	17	117	1.51	1.30	1.75
Tool and die makers, class B.....	11	69	1.17	1.13	1.27
Tool-room machine operators, class A.....	7	12	1.18	1.08	1.38
Tool-room machine operators, class B.....	8	23	.98	.85	1.20
Supervisory:					
Working foremen, compression molding department.....	10	25	1.05	.85	1.28
Working foremen, injection molding department.....	8	22	1.07	.90	1.63
Working foremen, finish department.....	8	18	.97	.78	1.10
Working foremen, inspection department.....	4	11	.88	.68	1.12
Processing:					
Set-up men, compression and injection molding equipment (die setters).....	9	25	.97	.77	1.25
Compression molders, semi-automatic.....	9	208	1.04	.67	1.28
Compression molders, hand.....	4	84	1.09	1.00	1.17
Injection molders.....	9	90	.80	.60	.88
Operators, preform press (pill press).....	3	15	.74	.70	.85
Powder boys.....	2	7	.74	(?)	
Finishers.....	10	110	.75	.50	1.07
Inspection: Inspectors.....	3	17	.74	.65	1.05
Recording and control: Stock clerks.....	6	11	.75	.65	.93
Material movement:					
Truck drivers.....	3	4	.80	.70	.88
Truckers, hand.....	4	5	.65	.60	.75
Custodial:					
Guards.....	2	7	.74	(?)	
Janitors.....	15	35	.66	.45	.88
Watchmen.....	7	13	.69	.42	.80
<i>Females</i>					
Processing:					
Compression molders, semi-automatic.....	3	80	.91	.67	1.01
Finishers.....	20	585	.65	.50	.82
Injection molders.....	10	154	.69	.60	.94
Inspection: Inspectors.....	6	159	.68	.57	.82

¹ Exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night-shift work.

² Insufficient number of establishments and workers to warrant presentation of data.

Workers compensated under incentive systems of wage payment enjoyed substantial wage advantages over those working on a time-rate basis in the same occupations. Seven of the 20 establishments visited were using incentive plans, but this type of wage payment was found in only five occupational groups, all in the repetitive production class. Men were employed in three of these jobs and women in four. For these occupations, time workers averaged 69 cents an hour as against 90 cents an hour for incentive workers, an average difference of 21 cents. By occupation, the differences varied from 7 cents an hour for female inspectors to 37 cents an hour for male semi-automatic compression molders.



Wage Rates in Fruit and Vegetable Canneries, Summer of 1943¹

Summary

HOURLY rates of pay for workers in selected occupational categories in fruit and vegetable canneries in 1943 varied from an average of 52 cents for women engaged in hand sorting to 95 cents for class A maintenance men. These averages are based on a survey covering 21 States which together produce about four-fifths of the Nation's canned fruits and vegetables. Almost three-fifths of all women workers but only about one-fourth of the men in the occupations studied earned less than 55 cents per hour. Occupational average hourly rates of women ranged from 52 to 57 cents. The highest rates were reported in the Pacific and Mountain regions and the lowest rates were found in the Southern and Border States.

Characteristics of the Industry

The canning of fruits and vegetables, although never a leading industry, has played an important role both in peacetime and in war. It ranked fourth among the food industries in terms of value of product in 1939 and was more important than all of the other canning and food-preserving industries combined. In that year 2,000 establishments were reported by the Census to be engaged in the canning of fruits or vegetables; these establishments processed products valued at over \$500,000,000 annually and employed about a quarter of a million workers at the peak season.

Wartime demands of the military services for increased supplies of canned goods caused employment to rise to about 275,000 in the peak month of 1942. Although the need remained great during the 1943 and 1944 seasons, shortages of manpower reduced employment in these years substantially below 1941 or 1942 levels.

Most canneries are in small communities, close to the source of their perishable raw materials. They are found in almost every State, but in 1939 about three-fourths of the value of all canned fruits and vegetables was produced in 11 States. About one-sixth of all establishments, accounting for about 30 percent of the value of the industry's products, are in California. Other leading States include New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Indiana, and Oregon. Most of the canner-

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by James P. Corkery, under the supervision of Lily Mary David.

ies are relatively small in size, employing fewer than 100 workers at the peak season. Some of the larger canneries, however, employ several thousand workers at that season of the year.

THE LABOR FORCE

Canning may be described as the preparation of food and its sterilization by heat in hermetically sealed containers. Typical processing operations are cleaning, cutting, trimming, preheating, cooking, and cooling the fruits and vegetables, and filling, sealing, labeling, and packing the cans. The exact nature of the operations varies somewhat with the character of the product and the degree of mechanization of the cannery. Most of the operations are simple and repetitive in nature and can be performed by workers with little or no training or experience. Among the more skilled workers are cooks, retort operators, and maintenance employees.

The necessity of canning fruits and vegetables within a few hours or days after they are picked makes the industry highly seasonal; accordingly, most of the unskilled workers are recruited for a few weeks of the year and are housewives, farmers, students, and workers ordinarily engaged in other activities. During the war years these part-time workers have been supplemented by "victory workers," school children, prisoners of war, imported workers, and members of the armed forces. Employment in the industry in the peak month of the year (September) averages about four times that in the months of lowest employment (February and March). Women constitute well over half the total workers in the industry at the peak season but comprise a relatively small part of the labor force in the off seasons, when only the maintenance and custodial employees remain on the pay roll.

The occupational categories most important, numerically, at the peak season are the hand fruit or vegetable preparers and sorters. These occupations together accounted for about three-fifths of the workers in the selected occupations for which data are here presented. Although males and females were found in almost every classification surveyed by the Bureau, nearly all the hand or machine fruit or vegetable preparers and hand sorters or fillers were women. In contrast, practically all of the maintenance men, retort operators, and truck drivers were males. Men also predominated in the categories of washer tenders, conveyor men, cooks, and hand truckers. Substantial proportions of both men and women were employed as filling-machine tenders and labelers.

Cannery workers are usually paid on an hourly or weekly basis, although incentive payments are frequently reported for some of the repetitive hand and machine operations, such as cutting, peeling, slicing, and filling. Premium rates of pay for overtime work are less common than in most manufacturing industries, since canning establishments are granted a complete exemption from the overtime provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act for 14 weeks a year, and work at straight-time rates is authorized for 12 hours a day or 56 hours a week during an additional 14 weeks.

It has been estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics that about 40 percent of the wage earners employed in fruit and vegetable canneries are working under the terms of union agreements. About 10 percent of the establishments included in the survey of occupational

wage rates in 1943 were unionized. Since most of these contracts were in the larger establishments, the proportion of workers covered by union agreements was appreciably higher. Unionization was found to be relatively more important on the West Coast than in other parts of the country.

Method of Survey

The wage data summarized in this article were collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as part of its survey of occupational wage rates. For the most part the data refer to a pay-roll period between April and October 1943. The statistics presented consequently do not generally reflect the influence of the 40-cent legal minimum wage which became effective in the industry on October 18, 1943. They also exclude the effect of increases in wage rates made under War Labor Board rulings since the summer of 1943.

Data on earnings are presented for 14 occupational classifications representing the range of skills found in the industry. Rates are shown for male workers only, in 8 of the 14 categories and for women only, in 4 of the categories. In classifying workers, uniform occupational descriptions were used in order to obtain maximum comparability among establishments.

The information provided consists of hourly wage rates or, in the case of incentive workers, straight-time average hourly earnings. Premium pay for overtime or for work on second or third shifts is excluded. The data were collected by trained field representatives of the Bureau who visited the canneries and obtained information from pay rolls and other company records.

Information was obtained from about 700 canneries employing 9 or more workers. Together these establishments employed at least 75,000 workers during the busy season in the industry. The establishments are in 21 States which produce about four-fifths of the country's canned fruits and vegetables.

Because the information was obtained in response to local requests, for purposes of wage stabilization, it falls somewhat short of a balanced representation of the industry. Four States that are relatively important in canning (Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Florida) are not represented at all, and in certain other States only selected areas were studied. In the preparation of composite figures for the industry as a whole these deficiencies have been partially offset by weighting. The detailed information for individual States and localities is believed to be representative of the specified areas and is probably more significant than the national figures.

Occupational Wage Rates

Average wage rates of workers in the selected occupational categories in the industry as a whole varied from 52 cents for women employed as hand sorters to 95 cents an hour for class A maintenance men. The average occupational rates for the women studied were all within the comparatively narrow limits of 52 and 57 cents (table 1). The occupational category employing the largest proportion of incentive workers—women engaged in hand preparation of fruits or vegetables—showed an average of 56 cents an hour, as did machine fruit or vegetable preparers. With the exception of class A main-

tenance men the average occupational rates reported for male workers were all between 64 and 75 cents.

TABLE 1.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupational Classifications in Fruit and Vegetable Canneries, Season of 1943*

Sex and occupational classification	Number of States represented	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings ²
Male:			
Cleaner or washer tenders	20	1,739	\$0.64
Conveyormen	20	2,026	.64
Cooks, class B	16	470	.72
Filling-machine tenders	20	1,321	.67
Labelers, hand or machine	19	1,615	.67
Maintenance men, class A	17	228	.95
Maintenance men, class B	19	659	.75
Retort operators	21	1,141	.73
Truck drivers	20	987	.71
Truckers, hand	21	4,319	.64
Female:			
Fillers, hand	20	4,654	.55
Filling-machine tenders	18	1,214	.53
Fruit or vegetable preparers, machine ³	15	5,484	.56
Fruit or vegetable preparers, hand ³	19	25,401	.56
Labelers, hand or machine	13	966	.57
Sorters, hand	20	16,138	.52

¹ Excluding premium payments for overtime and work on second or third shifts.

² Weighted averages based on total employment in States and broad regions as of 1939.

³ Cutters, peelers, slicers, cubers, or pitters.

Rates for males were substantially above those for female workers; the lowest average for male workers (64 cents) exceeded the highest average recorded for women (57 cents). The rates presented for men and women in two occupations in which considerable numbers of both sexes were employed also indicate a substantial difference in earnings. Males employed as filling-machine tenders averaged 14 cents more per hour than did female workers in this same classification. For labelers the difference in favor of men amounted to about 10 cents.

A rough classification of the workers studied, by average hourly earnings, is shown below. As there indicated, half of these workers earned less than 55 cents an hour. Almost three-fifths of the female workers received such hourly rates, compared with about one-fourth of the male workers.

Average straight-time hourly earnings: ²	Percent (estimated) ¹		
	All workers	Males	Females
30 and under 35 cents	1	(3)	1
35 and under 40 cents	2	2	2
40 and under 45 cents	13	6	15
45 and under 50 cents	15	3	19
50 and under 55 cents	20	15	21
55 and under 60 cents	8	10	8
60 and under 65 cents	7	12	5
65 and under 70 cents	7	8	7
70 and under 75 cents	9	8	9
75 and under 80 cents	4	8	3
80 and under 85 cents	7	6	7
85 and under 90 cents	3	10	1
90 cents and over	4	12	2
Total	100	100	100

¹ This distribution was constructed from plant averages for the various occupations rather than from averages for individual workers. This method assumes that all workers in a given plant and occupation received the average rate for the occupation and plant. Such a distribution probably exaggerates somewhat the concentration of workers in the central wage classes. There is evidence, however, that in this industry a marked concentration of workers is found at the average rate for the occupation and establishment.

² Excluding premium payments for overtime and work on second or third shifts.

³ Less than half of 1 percent.

The rates shown here appear low when compared with those in other manufacturing industries. However, a comparison of the hourly earnings in the summer of 1943 with 1939 earnings indicates marked increases in wage levels in fruit and vegetable canneries.³

The highest rates of pay were found in the Pacific and Mountain region of the country and the lowest in the South. As table 2 indi-

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupational Classifications in Fruit and Vegetable Canneries in 21 States, Season of 1943*

Region, State, and area	Males						
	Cleaners or washer tenders	Conveyormen	Cooks, class B	Filling-machine tenders	Labelers, hand or machine	Maintenance men	Retort operators
						Class A	Class B
<i>Northeast</i>							
Maine	\$0.59	\$0.63	\$0.62	\$0.62	\$0.58	\$0.80	\$0.67
Portland, Lewiston, Bath area	.66	.63	(2)	.63	.63	.73	.70
Maine (except above area)	.57	.63	.62	.62	.57	.81	.66
Massachusetts (Boston area)	.69	.75	(2)	.73	1.11	.87	.83
New Jersey	.57	.59	.62	.62	.61	1.04	.67
Atlantic and Burlington Counties	.57	.59	.62	.62	.60	1.04	.66
Cumberland and Salem Counties							.68
New York, except New York City	.63	.62	.72	.65	.65	.89	.73
<i>South and Border</i>							
Arkansas	.41	.40	.46	.47	.41	.51	.46
Maryland and Delaware	.51	.51	.59	.53	.52	.81	.62
Baltimore, Md.	.53	.53	.64	.57	.54	.90	.66
Caroline and Talbot Counties, Md.	.50	.50		.52	.51	.78	.63
Carroll and Frederick Counties, Md.	.51	.51	.56	.57	.56		.59
Cecil, Md., Harford, Md., and New Castle, Del., Counties	.58	.51		.58	.63		.69
Kent and Sussex Counties, Del.	.50			.51	.50		.64
Dorchester County, Md.	.50			.50	.50		.62
Kent and Queen Anne Counties, Md.							.55
Somerset County, Md.	.47	.50		.50	.50		.56
Wicomico County, Md.	.50	.53		.54	.52		.53
Worcester County, Md.	.49	.51		.50	.50		.54
Exes (Rio Grande Valley)	.45	.40	.48	.45	.42	.80	.56
<i>Middle West</i>							
Illinois (except Chicago)	.59			.60	.60	1.08	.70
Indiana	.49	.53	.66	.56	.47	1.05	.66
Iowa	.56	.54	.55	.53	.54	.70	.68
Michigan	.62	.74	.66	.67	.65	.85	.73
Minnesota	.61	.49		.58	.65		.67
Missouri	.36	.38	.36	.37			.38
Northern	.39	.40	.43				.40
Southern	.36	.37	.33	.37			.38
Nebraska	.54	.52		.58			.54
Wisconsin	.59	.60		.59	.71	.88	.66
<i>Mountain and Pacific</i>							
California	.82	.83	.91	.88	.87	.99	
Los Angeles area		(2)			.68		(2)
Orange County	.67		.79		.79		
San Bernardino area					.63		
San Francisco Bay area	.85	.88			.95	.91	
San Jose area		.85	.92	.88	.93	1.03	.93
Stockton area		(2)	.92		.97		.98
Modesto, Turlock, and Merced area		.89			.93	1.07	
Colorado	.56	.65	.59	.58	.64	.82	.68
Utah	.68	.63	.77	.66	.72	1.12	.76
Washington and Oregon	.60	.80	.93	.81	.84	1.18	.94
Portland, Oreg., and Vancouver, Wash., area	.79	.83	.93	.87	.84	1.18	1.11
Everett and Bellingham, Wash., area	.81			.82			.98
Walla Walla and Pasco, Wash., area	.83	.78					.90
Wenatchee, Yakima-Ellensburg, Wash., area		.78	.92	.78	.83		.87

¹ Excluding premium pay for overtime and night-shift work.

² Insufficient information for presentation of an average.

³ See U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bulletin No. 176 (Washington, 1940).

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupational Classifications in Fruit and Vegetable Canneries in 21 States, Season of 1943—Continued*

Region, State, and area	Males—Con.			Females			
	Truck drivers	Truck- ers, hand	Fillers, hand	Filling- ma- chine tenders	Fruit or vege- table pre- parers	Label- ers, hand or ma- chine	Sort- ers, hand
					Hand	Ma- chine	
Northeast							
Maine	\$0.64	\$0.62	\$0.44	\$0.44	\$0.43	\$0.46	\$0.45
Portland, Lewiston, Bath area	.71	.62	.50	.48	.49	.47	.49
Maine (except above area)	.63	.63	.43	.44	.41	.45	.43
Massachusetts (Boston area)	.79	.69	.52	.47	.50	(2)	.48
New Jersey	.65	.52	.46	.54	.48	—	.47
Atlantic and Burlington Counties	.76	.51	.46	.55	.50	—	.45
Cumberland and Salem Counties	.61	.55	—	.53	.44	—	.54
New York, except New York City	.67	.60	.50	.51	.50	.50	.48
South and Border							
Arkansas	.46	.48	.38	—	.37	—	.39
Maryland and Delaware	.54	.52	.45	.45	.50	.45	.44
Baltimore, Md.	.61	.54	.45	.43	.56	.42	.43
Caroline and Talbot Counties, Md.	.51	.50	.50	.49	.50	.47	.49
Carroll and Frederick Counties, Md.	.55	.56	.43	.44	.51	.43	—
Cecil, Md., Harford, Md., and New Castle, Del., Counties	.63	.56	.47	.47	.53	.49	.49
Kent and Sussex Counties, Del.	.58	.51	.45	.45	.46	—	.44
Dorchester County, Md.	.50	.50	.46	.45	.47	—	.47
Kent and Queen Anne Counties, Md.	—	.51	—	.40	.49	.48	—
Somerset County, Md.	.50	.50	—	.48	.46	—	.46
Wicomico County, Md.	.57	.47	—	.46	.54	—	.43
Worcester County, Md.	—	.48	—	.45	.49	—	.45
Texas (Rio Grande Valley)	.40	.40	.40	.40	(2)	—	.40
Middle West							
Illinois (except Chicago)	.59	.56	.47	.51	.48	.53	—
Indiana	.57	.52	.47	.51	.48	.47	.47
Iowa	.58	.53	.44	.47	.43	.46	.47
Michigan	.76	.59	.50	—	.47	—	.50
Minnesota	.62	.57	—	.52	.52	.48	.47
Missouri	.37	.35	.35	—	.36	.40	.39
Northern	.40	.39	.40	—	.39	.40	.39
Southern	.37	.35	.33	—	.36	—	.36
Nebraska	.51	.52	.41	.38	.45	.44	—
Wisconsin	.58	.58	.48	.49	.43	.46	.44
Mountain and Pacific							
California	.97	.83	.72	.58	.71	.73	—
Los Angeles area	(2)	—	.58	—	.58	—	.56
Orange County	—	—	.65	—	.50	.48	.50
San Bernardino area	—	—	.61	.54	.54	.56	.49
San Francisco Bay area	.98	.86	.76	—	.80	.70	.70
San Jose area	.97	.86	.73	.83	.75	.73	.70
Stockton area	1.03	.86	.74	—	—	—	.70
Modesto, Turlock, and Merced area	.91	.84	.73	—	.75	.79	.67
Colorado	.70	.62	.54	.50	.52	.46	.51
Utah	.73	.69	.58	.56	.63	.64	.60
Washington and Oregon	.85	.80	.70	.69	.66	.72	.66
Portland, Oreg., and Vancouver, Wash., area	—	—	.82	.66	.75	.67	.83
Everett and Bellingham, Wash., area	—	—	.81	—	—	—	.67
Walla Walla and Pasco, Wash., area	.85	.78	—	.64	—	—	.64
Wenatchee, Yakima-Ellensburg, Wash., area	.84	.78	.73	.64	.66	.72	.66

¹ Excluding premium pay for overtime and night shift work.² Insufficient information for presentation of an average.

cates, the Eastern States generally ranked next to the Pacific Coast in wage levels, although for some occupational categories the rates reported for the Middle West were equal to or above those reported in the East. Among the individual States the lowest rates were generally found in Missouri and the highest in California. Rates between 30 and 40 cents an hour were reported for women in numerous establishments in the Southern, Border, and Middle Western States.

Union Wages and Hours in the Building Trades, July 1, 1944¹

Summary

UNION wage rates for journeymen in the building trades in 75 cities averaged \$1.59 per hour on July 1, 1944. For helpers and laborers the average was \$0.939, and journeymen and helpers combined, \$1.48.

Based on comparable data obtained for both 1943 and 1944, average hourly wage rates for journeymen advanced only 0.8 percent during the year; for helpers and laborers, the increase was 1.2 percent. About 16 percent of the total union membership benefited by these increases. Bricklayers had the highest average rate for the journeyman trades (\$1.814), and composition roofers had the lowest (\$1.44). Individual scales ranged from 50 cents per hour for building laborers in Charleston, S. C., and Tampa, Fla., to \$2.541 for journeyman sign painters in New York City.

Straight-time weekly hours for journeymen averaged 39.8 on July 1, 1944; helpers averaged 40 hours. There has been very little change in straight-time hours during the past 10 years. The overtime rate of time and a half has become almost universal in the building trades for the duration of the war.

Scope and Method of Study

Since 1907 the Bureau of Labor Statistics has made annual surveys of union scales in the building trades. The original studies included 14 journeyman and 4 helper and laborer trades in 39 cities. The scope has been expanded gradually to include 27 journeyman and 10 helper and laborer trades in 75 cities, representing 40 States and the District of Columbia.²

From 1907 to 1938, rates were collected as of May 15, but from 1939 through 1941 the collection date was June 1. Owing to the Building

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Donald H. Gerrish, assisted by Annette V. Simi, under the general supervision of Don Q. Crowther.

² The following are the cities covered. The numerals indicate the population group in which the city is included in tables 6 and 7.

North and Pacific

Baltimore, Md. II.
Binghamton, N. Y. V.
Boston, Mass. II.
Buffalo, N. Y. II.
Butte, Mont. V.
Charleston, W. Va. V.
Chicago, Ill. I.
Cincinnati, Ohio. III.
Cleveland, Ohio. II.
Columbus, Ohio. III.
Davenport, Iowa, included in
Rock Island (Ill.) district.
Dayton, Ohio. IV.
Denver, Colo. III.
Des Moines, Iowa. IV.
Detroit, Mich. I.
Duluth, Minn. IV.
Erie, Pa. IV.
Grand Rapids, Mich. IV.

Indianapolis, Ind. III.
Kansas City, Mo. III.
Los Angeles, Calif. I.
Madison, Wis. V.
Manchester, N. H. V.
Milwaukee, Wis. II.
Minneapolis, Minn. III.
Moline, Ill., included in Rock Is-
land (Ill.) district.
Newark, N. J. III.
New Haven, Conn. IV.
New York, N. Y. I.
Omaha, Nebr. IV.
Peoria, Ill. IV.
Philadelphia, Pa. I.
Pittsburgh, Pa. II.
Portland, Maine. V.
Portland, Oreg. III.
Providence, R. I. III.

Reading, Pa. IV.
Rochester, N. Y. III.
Rock Island (Ill.) district IV.
St. Louis, Mo. II.
St. Paul, Minn. III.
Salt Lake City, Utah. IV.
San Francisco, Calif. II.
Scranton, Pa. IV.
Seattle, Wash. III.
South Bend, Ind. IV.
Spokane, Wash. IV.
Springfield, Mass. IV.
Toledo, Ohio. III.
Washington, D. C. II.
Wichita, Kans. IV.
Worcester, Mass. IV.
York, Pa. V.
Youngstown, Ohio. IV.

South and Southwest

Atlanta, Ga. III.
Birmingham, Ala. III.
Charleston, S. C. V.
Charlotte, N. C. IV.
Dallas, Tex. III.
El Paso, Tex. V.
Houston, Tex. III.

Jackson, Miss. V.
Jacksonville, Fla. IV.
Little Rock, Ark. V.
Louisville, Ky. III.
Memphis, Tenn. III.
Mobile, Ala. V.
Nashville, Tenn. IV.

New Orleans, La. III.
Norfolk, Va. IV.
Oklahoma City, Okla. IV.
Phoenix, Ariz. V.
Richmond, Va. IV.
San Antonio, Tex. III.
Tampa, Fla. IV.

Construction Stabilization Agreement,³ effective July 1, 1942, rates for 1942 and subsequent years have been obtained as of July 1.

The material for the study was collected by field representatives of the Bureau, through personal interviews with local union officials in each city. Wage and hour scales reported were checked against signed union agreements when such were available, or with the local building contractors who used union labor. The Bureau's agents obtained 2,571 quotations covering 520,747 union members, 83 percent of whom were journeymen and 17 percent helpers. Wage scales for apprentices, foremen, or persons who were paid unusual rates for personal reasons rather than for distinct trade qualifications were not included in this study.

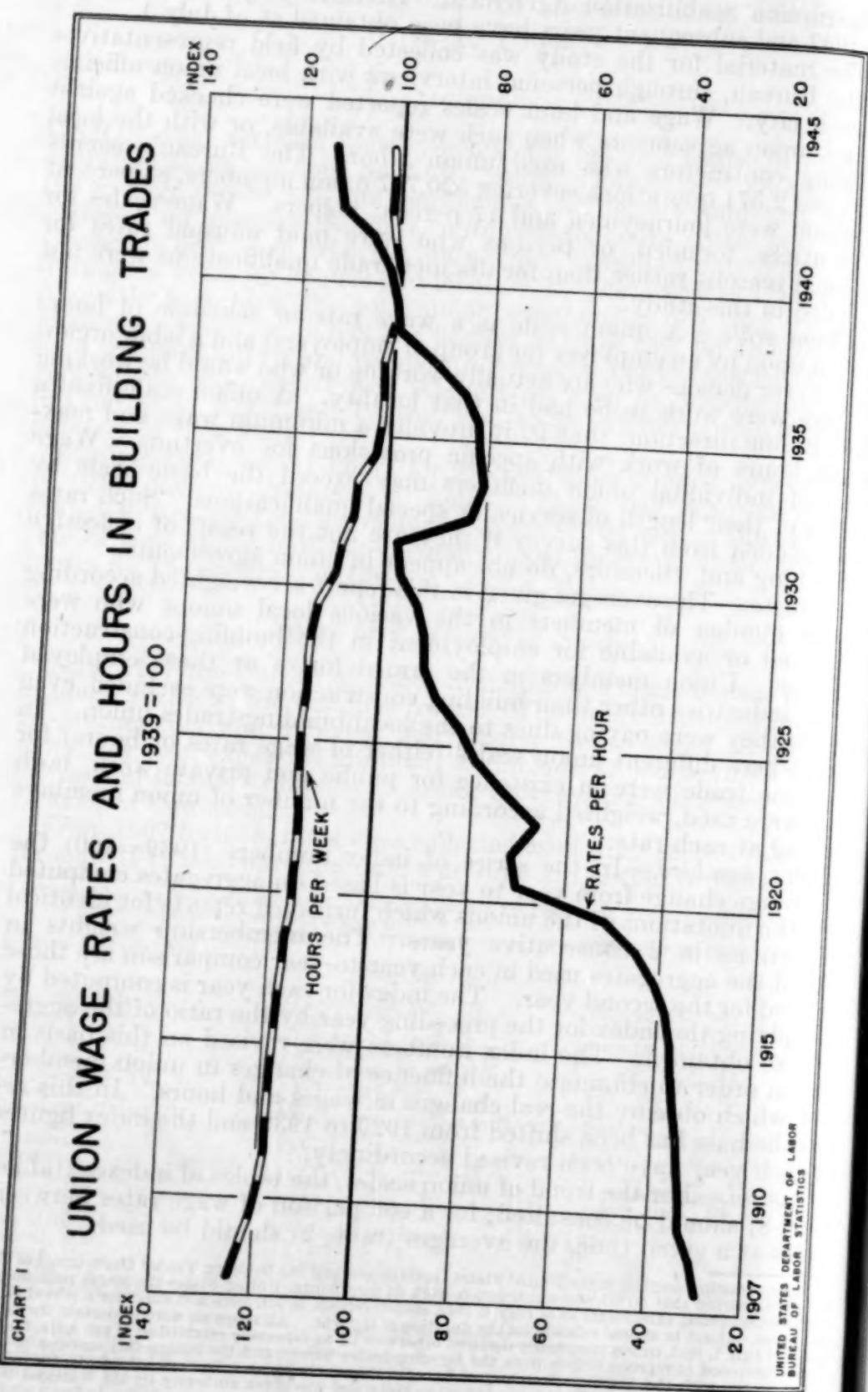
Union scale.—A union scale is a wage rate or schedule of hours agreed upon by an employer (or group of employers) and a labor organization, for persons who are actually working or who would be working if there were work to be had in that locality. A union scale fixes a limit in one direction; that is, it provides a minimum wage and maximum hours of work with specific provisions for overtime. Wage rates of individual union members may exceed the basic scale by reason of their length of service or special qualifications. Such rates are excluded from this survey if they are not the result of collective bargaining and, therefore, do not appear in union agreements.

Averages.—The averages given in this report are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions who were employed or available for employment in the building-construction industry. Union members in the armed forces or those employed in war industries other than building construction were excluded, even though they were paying dues to the local building-trades union. In cities where different union scales (either of wage rates or hours) for the same trade were in existence for public and private work, both rates were used, weighted according to the number of union members working at each rate.

Index numbers.—In the series of index numbers (1939=100) the percentage change from year to year is based on aggregates computed from the quotations of the unions which furnished reports for identical occupations in 2 consecutive years. The membership weights in both of the aggregates used in each year-to-year comparison are those reported for the second year. The index for each year is computed by multiplying the index for the preceding year by the ratio of the aggregates so obtained. The index numbers were revised on this basis in 1936 in order to eliminate the influence of changes in union membership, which obscure the real changes in wages and hours. In this report the base has been shifted from 1929 to 1939 and the index figures for each year have been revised accordingly.

Caution.—For the trend of union scales, the tables of indexes (tables 1 and 8) should be consulted; for a comparison of wage rates between trades at a given time, the averages (table 2) should be used.

³ The contracting agencies of the United States Government and the Building Trades Department of the A. F. of L. agreed that on all war construction work in continental United States the wages paid under collective-bargaining agreements as of July 1, 1942, should remain in full force and effect for a period of at least 1 year, subject to annual renewal for the duration of the war. All renewals were to contain the rates paid as of July 1, 1942, unless specifically declared otherwise by an especially established Wage Adjustment Board, composed of representatives from the building-trades unions and the contracting agencies of the United States, with the Assistant Secretary of Labor acting as chairman. In September 1943, the Wage Adjustment Board was reconstituted as a tripartite body and was given authority by the National War Labor Board to approve or disapprove wage adjustments in private construction work also, in line with the national wage-stabilization policy.



Union Hourly Wage Rates

TREND OF UNION WAGE RATES, 1907 TO 1944

Reflecting the effectiveness of the Building Construction Stabilization Agreement and the Federal wage-stabilization policy, average union wage rates increased only 0.8 percent, both for journeymen and for all building-trades workers, from July 1, 1943, to July 1, 1944. Increases for helpers and laborers averaged 1.2 percent (table 1).

After 1939, the base year of the index, rates for journeymen increased 12 percent; for helpers and laborers, 20 percent; and for journeymen and helpers combined, 14 percent.

The greatest increase in wages for all building-trades workers in recent years (since the severe reductions experienced during the period 1931-32) was realized from 1937 to 1938. The rise in the index in that year exceeded the rise during the war building boom of 1941-42. The largest increases during any one year for both journeymen and helpers were those obtained immediately after the first World War, during the year 1919-20.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates in All Building Trades, 1907 to 1944*

[1939 = 100]

Year	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers	Year	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers
1907	29.3	29.7	27.3	1926	88.3	88.7	84.9
1908	31.2	31.6	28.5	1927	91.3	91.7	86.4
1909	32.7	33.2	29.5	1928	91.9	92.4	87.3
1910	34.0	34.6	30.5	1929	93.1	93.6	88.8
1911	34.5	35.2	30.6	1930	97.0	97.5	93.3
1912	35.3	36.0	30.9	1931	97.3	97.8	92.8
1913	36.1	36.9	31.8	1932	83.1	83.6	79.2
1914	36.9	37.7	32.1	1933	80.8	81.4	75.7
1915	37.2	38.0	32.4	1934	81.4	81.8	77.9
1916	38.4	39.3	33.5	1935	82.3	82.8	78.3
1917	40.8	41.5	36.8	1936	85.3	85.5	82.9
1918	45.3	45.9	42.6	1937	91.2	91.4	90.1
1919	51.9	52.4	49.3	1938	99.3	99.3	99.2
1920	70.0	70.1	71.5	1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
1921	71.3	71.4	72.2	1940	101.6	101.4	102.0
1922	66.9	67.3	65.7	1941	105.3	105.0	106.8
1923	73.9	74.2	69.7	1942	111.9	110.9	117.5
1924	79.8	80.1	75.4	1943	112.7	111.5	118.9
1925	82.9	83.1	77.9	1944	113.6	112.4	120.3

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGE RATES, JULY 1, 1944

On July 1, 1944, the average hourly wage rate for journeyman building-trades workers in 75 cities was \$1.59 (table 2). The average for helpers and laborers was \$0.939 per hour, and for the combined groups, \$1.48.

Bricklayers had the highest average for the journeyman trades (\$1.814 per hour), almost 9 cents per hour higher than the average for elevator constructors (\$1.726), who were in second place. The boilermakers, electricians, and plasterers also had average rates above \$1.70 per hour, and 11 other trades exceeded the journeyman average (\$1.59). The composition roofers' average (\$1.44) was the lowest for all journeyman trades.

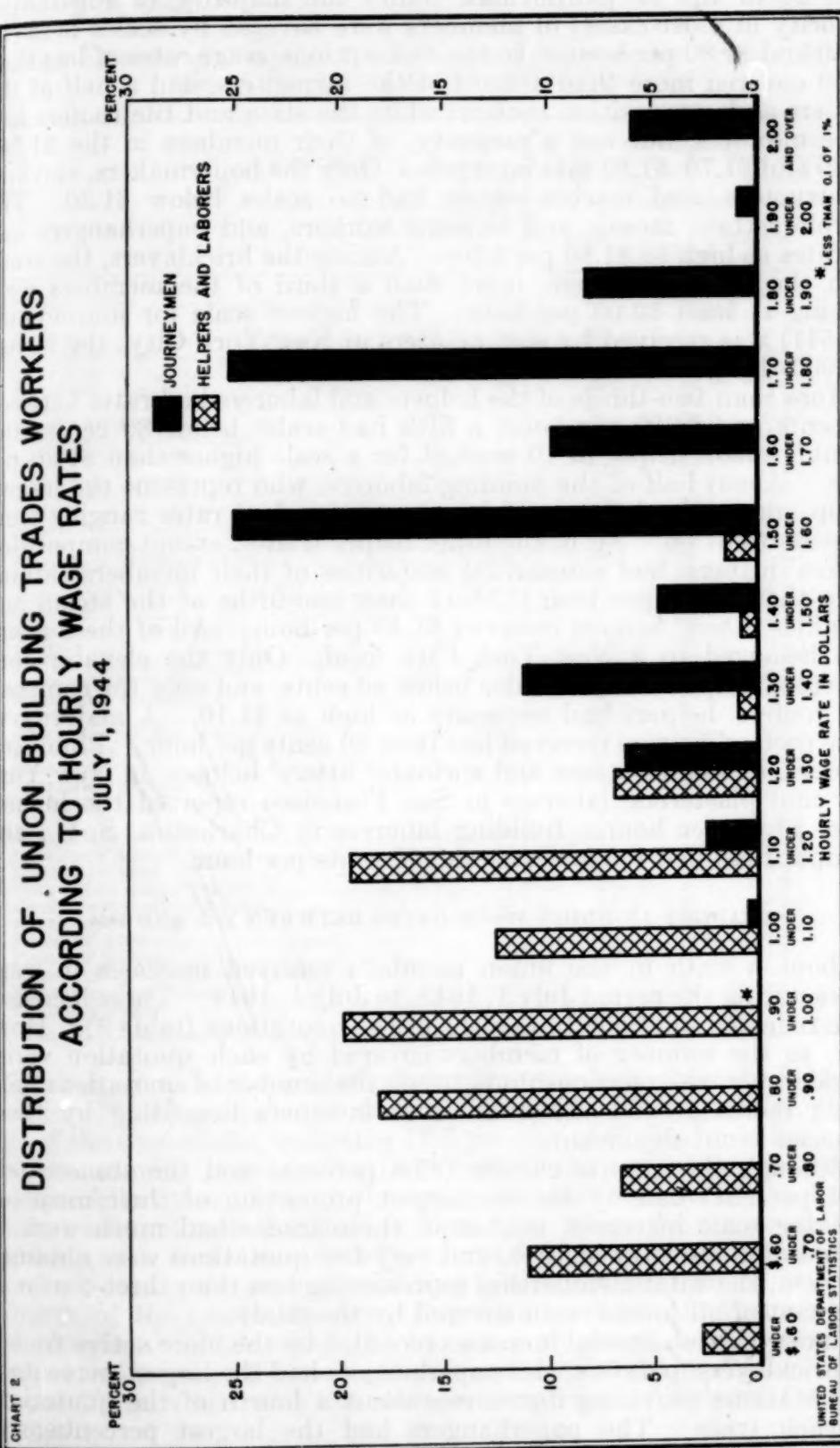
Among the helper and laborer trades, steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers had the highest average (\$1.262). Elevator constructors' helpers were second (\$1.212). Only the plumbers' laborers, building laborers, and composition roofers' helpers had average rates of less than \$1.00.

Three-fifths of the journeymen had scales ranging from \$1.50 to \$1.80 per hour, most of the actual rates being \$1.50, \$1.625, or \$1.75 per hour. Less than a tenth of 1 percent of the journeymen (all glaziers) had rates below \$1.00 per hour, while 6 percent had scales of \$2.00 or more.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Union Members in the Building Trades, by Hourly Wage Rates, July 1, 1944*

Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union Journeymen whose rates (in cents) per hour were—											
		Under 100	100 and under 110	110 and under 120	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160	160 and under 170	170 and under 180	180 and under 190	190 and under 200	200 and over
Journeymen.....	\$1.590	(1)	0.4	2.4	6.3	11.2	4.7	25.0	9.8	25.2	8.2	0.8	6.0
Asbestos workers.....	1.629	—	5.5	1.7	.4	1.8	1.5	24.9	32.8	13.3	1.1	—	17.0
Boilermakers.....	1.723	—	—	—	—	(1)	—	17.1	29.8	31.0	—	—	22.1
Bricklayers.....	1.814	—	—	—	.1	.5	.1	6.1	15.8	30.5	7.2	6.1	33.6
Carpenters.....	1.532	—	.3	3.8	7.7	20.6	6.2	27.8	1.3	16.9	14.2	—	1.2
Cement finishers.....	1.531	—	.3	.7	4.9	13.2	9.9	42.7	8.3	12.5	7.0	(1)	.5
Electricians, inside wiremen.....	1.707	—	—	—	1.6	1.2	3.0	1.1	17.9	16.3	31.1	7.9	19.9
Elevator constructors.....	1.726	—	—	—	—	—	.4	4.8	14.5	25.5	26.1	4.4	17.7
Glaziers.....	1.513	1.2	1.6	3.9	22.5	9.1	13.8	7.9	11.8	1.4	26.8	—	—
Granite cutters.....	1.603	—	—	—	—	14.0	.6	—	.5	69.9	12.5	—	2.5
Lathers.....	1.660	—	—	—	.3	1.9	—	.6	2.3	32.0	18.3	17.3	23.7
Machinists.....	1.571	—	—	—	—	2.1	4.2	3.2	49.9	12.3	27.9	.4	—
Marble setters.....	1.601	—	—	—	—	—	2.8	5.9	41.9	11.7	37.7	—	—
Mosaic and terrazzo workers.....	1.579	—	—	—	—	—	8.0	6.4	6.4	26.5	21.1	31.6	—
Painters.....	1.534	—	.8	3.4	12.8	8.4	6.4	25.3	2.6	38.5	.6	—	1.2
Paperhangers.....	1.501	—	.9	4.6	8.0	13.5	14.7	31.2	.2	26.9	—	—	—
Plasterers.....	1.707	—	—	—	—	1.4	4.1	—	18.4	24.6	17.5	19.8	14.2
Plumbers and gas fitters.....	1.661	—	—	—	—	1.0	.1	.8	—	26.6	22.3	42.1	7.1
Rodmen.....	1.534	—	—	—	—	—	14.2	15.5	3.9	31.7	6.4	22.8	3.1
Roofers, composition.....	1.440	—	6.3	9.1	7.2	21.9	10.4	19.6	7.6	12.4	3.1	.6	1.8
Roofers, slate and tile.....	1.513	—	5.4	7.2	9.7	12.3	9.1	18.8	3.7	23.5	5.0	.6	4.7
Sheet-metal workers.....	1.599	—	—	.3	4.3	6.1	8.5	33.3	20.3	15.5	—	2.1	9.6
Sign painters.....	1.616	—	1.6	1.2	12.4	5.1	4.3	20.7	16.5	13.5	13.6	7.8	3.3
Steam and sprinkler fitters.....	1.642	—	.7	—	2.0	1.0	—	—	22.2	30.5	41.2	1.3	—
Stonecutters.....	1.617	—	—	1.2	—	12.4	3.0	—	38.4	5.9	7.1	—	29.6
Stonemasons.....	1.636	—	.7	—	—	7.9	.4	4.2	10.7	32.5	32.5	4.2	1.5
Structural-iron workers.....	1.684	—	—	—	—	.7	.7	.1	25.2	25.6	28.8	7.0	4.7
Tile layers.....	1.534	—	—	—	—	5.4	3.6	16.9	45.2	10.5	18.3	.1	—
Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union helpers and laborers whose rates (in cents) per hour were—											
		Under 60	60 and under 70	70 and under 80	80 and under 90	90 and under 100	100 and under 110	110 and under 120	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160	
Helpers and laborers.....	\$0.939	2.7	11.1	6.6	18.1	19.8	12.5	19.4	6.8	0.9	0.7	1.4	
Bricklayers' tenders.....	1.033	—	2.7	5.1	11.5	12.8	11.8	40.9	13.8	.3	1.1	—	
Building laborers.....	.875	4.0	14.6	7.1	22.9	24.4	13.0	10.4	3.6	—	—	—	
Composition roofers' helpers.....	.800	6.6	19.9	27.1	14.9	16.6	14.9	—	—	—	—	—	
Elevator constructors' helpers.....	1.212	—	—	—	.6	.3	15.2	29.0	34.4	11.9	8.6	—	
Marble setters' helpers.....	1.063	—	1.8	.9	4.0	19.6	20.9	41.7	—	11.1	—	2.0	
Plasterers' laborers.....	1.114	—	7.5	5.3	3.8	3.5	7.0	40.8	19.1	5.2	5.8	.2	
Plumbers' laborers.....	.981	.8	9.8	14.5	9.6	11.2	21.2	25.3	—	—	—	7.6	
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers.....	1.262	—	—	.2	3.5	15.0	2.0	29.4	6.9	—	—	43.0	
Terrazzo workers' helpers.....	1.167	—	—	.4	2.4	4.9	18.3	26.7	9.9	36.7	.7	—	
Tile layers' helpers.....	1.059	—	1.1	1.6	3.4	19.0	31.2	35.4	—	8.3	—	—	

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.



In 23 of the 27 journeyman trades the majority (a substantial majority in most cases) of members were covered by scales between \$1.50 and \$1.80 per hour. In the 4 exceptions, wage rates of less than \$1.50 covered more than a third of the carpenters, and a half of the glaziers and composition roofers; while the slate and tile roofers had large numbers, but not a majority, of their members in the \$1.50-\$1.60 and \$1.70-\$1.80 rate intervals. Only the boilermakers, elevator constructors, and marble setters had no scales below \$1.30. The marble setters, mosaic and terrazzo workers, and paperhangers had no rates as high as \$1.80 per hour. Among the bricklayers, the trade with the highest average, more than a third of the members were earning at least \$2.00 per hour. The highest scale for journeymen (\$2.541) was received by sign painters in New York City; the lowest (\$0.900) by glaziers in Charlotte, N. C.

More than two-thirds of the helpers and laborers had rates between 80 cents and \$1.20 per hour; a fifth had scales below 80 cents, and about 1 union helper in 10 worked for a scale higher than \$1.20 per hour. About half of the building laborers, who represent the largest group among the helper and laborer trades, had rates ranging from 80 cents to \$1.00. All of the other helper trades, except composition roofers' helpers, had substantial majorities of their members earning more than \$1.00 per hour. More than two-fifths of the steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers received \$1.50 per hour. All of these members belonged to a New York City local. Only the elevator constructors' helpers had no scales below 80 cents, and only the composition roofers' helpers had no scales as high as \$1.10. A majority of these roofers' helpers received less than 80 cents per hour. Plumbers' laborers, as well as steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers, in New York City and plasterers' laborers in San Francisco reported the highest scale, \$1.50 per hour. Building laborers in Charleston, S. C., and Tampa, Fla., had the lowest scale, 50 cents per hour.

CHANGES IN UNION WAGE RATES BETWEEN 1943 AND 1944

About a sixth of the union members received increases in wage scales during the period July 1, 1943, to July 1, 1944. These increases were reflected in about 16 percent of the quotations (table 3). However, as the number of members covered by each quotation varies considerably, the relationship between the number of quotations indicating increases and the number of members benefiting by these increases is not significant.

Although the granite cutters (82.6 percent) and the stonecutters (62.1 percent) had by far the largest proportion of their members receiving scale increases, neither of these trades had much work in the building industry in 1944, and very few quotations were obtained for them, the total membership representing less than three-tenths of 1 percent of all journeymen covered by the study.

Among the substantial increases recorded by the more active trades, the bricklayers, painters, and paperhangers had the largest percentage of quotations providing increases—about a fourth of the quotations for each trade. The paperhangers had the largest percentage of members receiving increases (36.2 percent). The elevator constructors reported increases covering about a fourth of their members, and the bricklayers, painters, cement finishers, and sign painters each had

over 20 percent of their members covered by rates higher than those reported in 1943.

TABLE 3.—*Number of Changes in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, July 1, 1944, Compared With July 1, 1943*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1943	Number of quotations showing—		Percent of union members affected by—	
		Increase	No change	Increase	No change
All building trades	2,558	429	2,129	16.5	83.5
Journeymen	2,025	323	1,702	16.2	83.8
Asbestos workers	68	4	64	9.3	90.7
Boilermakers	48	4	44	.5	99.5
Bricklayers	86	20	66	21.7	78.3
Carpenters	114	14	100	16.3	83.7
Cement finishers	92	15	77	20.4	79.6
Electricians, inside wiremen	88	11	77	14.3	85.7
Elevator constructors	63	9	54	24.5	75.5
Glaziers	74	12	62	10.9	89.1
Granite cutters	10	3	7	82.6	17.4
Lathers	72	5	67	11.3	88.7
Machinists	32	3	29	5.7	94.3
Marble setters	57	12	45	17.1	82.9
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	59	10	49	18.6	81.4
Painters	184	45	139	21.3	78.7
Paperhangers	74	18	56	36.2	63.8
Plasterers	88	12	76	11.3	88.7
Plumbers and gas fitters	86	9	77	10.3	89.7
Rodmen	71	10	61	9.3	90.7
Roofers, composition	105	12	93	12.0	88.0
Roofers, slate and tile	60	7	53	12.3	87.7
Sheet-metal workers	76	12	64	16.8	83.2
Sign painters	76	15	61	20.2	79.8
Steam and sprinkler fitters	108	23	85	9.3	90.7
Stonecutters	21	4	17	62.1	37.9
Stonemasons	57	11	46	8.6	91.4
Structural-iron workers	85	12	73	11.1	88.9
Tile layers	71	11	60	15.7	84.3
Helpers and laborers	533	106	427	17.5	82.5
Bricklayers' tenders	93	18	75	12.2	87.8
Building laborers	90	21	69	19.4	80.6
Composition roofers' helpers	17	2	15	24.0	76.0
Elevator constructors' helpers	59	9	50	21.1	78.9
Marble setters' helpers	29	3	26	15.8	84.2
Plasterers' laborers	76	15	61	8.7	91.3
Plumbers' laborers	44	8	36	31.8	68.2
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	36	17	19	14.5	85.5
Terrazzo workers' helpers	49	7	42	14.8	85.2
Tile layers' helpers	40	6	34	9.8	90.2

The helpers and laborers had slightly more success than the journeymen in obtaining increases during the period of the study. One-fifth of the quotations, including 17.5 percent of the union helpers and laborers, showed increases. About half of the quotations for steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers showed raises, but because of the heavy concentration of members in New York City where the rates remained the same, this increase only affected 14.5 percent of their members. Increases during the year for building laborers were reported in about a fourth of the quotations, covering about a fifth of the members. The plumbers' laborers had the largest proportion of their members affected by increases (32 percent), followed by the composition roofers' helpers (24 percent) and the elevator constructors' helpers (21 percent).

Over three-fourths of the quotations showing increases involved changes of less than 10 percent; about half of the quotations, including

three-fifths of the members receiving increases, showed rates between 5 and 10 percent higher than in 1943 (table 4). Twenty-two percent of the quotations showed gains of 10 percent or more, but these increases benefited only about 8 percent of those getting higher scales and 1.3 percent of the total membership.

TABLE 4.—Number of Increases in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, by Percent of Increase, July 1, 1944, Compared With July 1, 1943

Trade	Number of quotations, showing increases of—				Percent of total members affected by increases of—			
	Less than 5 percent	5 and under 10 percent	10 and under 15 percent	15 percent and over	Less than 5 percent	5 and under 10 percent	10 and under 15 percent	15 percent and over
	107	227	61	34	4.9	10.3	0.7	0.6
All building trades.....								
Journeymen.....	90	178	42	13	4.8	10.7	.6	.1
Asbestos workers.....	1	3			.8	8.5		
Boilermakers.....	1	1	2		.4	(1)	.1	
Bricklayers.....	5	12	3		6.8	14.1	.8	
Carpenters.....	5	9			1.0	15.3		
Cement finishers.....	4	9	1	1	5.5	14.0	.2	.7
Electricians, inside wiremen.....	3	5	2	1	5.8	6.0	2.4	.1
Elevator constructors.....	6	2	1		22.0	1.8	.7	
Glaziers.....	4	6	1	1	3.2	6.6	.3	.8
Granite cutters.....	2	1			82.4	.2		
Lathers.....	1	4			2.8	8.5		
Machinists.....		1	2			4.9	.8	
Marble setters.....	3	7	1	1	6.3	9.8	.5	.5
Mosaic and terrazzo workers.....	1	7	1	1	.8	11.1	5.2	1.5
Painters.....	16	22	7		12.4	7.7	1.2	
Paperhangars.....	6	8	3	1	21.1	12.9	2.1	.1
Plasterers.....	3	6	2	1	4.3	6.1	.6	.3
Plumbers and gas fitters.....	2	7			1.6	8.7		
Rodmen.....	4	5	1		2.2	6.4	.7	
Roofers, composition.....	1	9	2		.6	10.6	.8	
Roofers, slate and tile.....	1	4	2		.3	11.3	.7	
Sheet-metal workers.....	6	2	3	1	13.8	2.3	.7	(1)
Sign painters.....	4	7	3	1	5.9	2.9	11.1	.3
Steam and sprinkler fitters.....	2	20	1		1.8	7.4	.1	
Stonecutters.....		1	1	2		1.8	29.6	30.7
Stonemasons.....	3	6	2		.9	7.5	.2	
Structural-iron workers.....	5	7			3.5	7.6		
Tile layers.....	1	7	1	2	.4	13.3	1.4	.6
Helpers and laborers.....	17	49	19	21	5.3	7.3	1.4	3.5
Bricklayers' tenders.....	2	6	5	5	1.3	6.8	1.8	2.3
Building laborers.....	4	6	2	9	7.0	7.2	1.1	4.1
Composition roofers' helpers.....		2				24.0		
Elevator constructors' helpers.....	4	4	1		14.9	5.9	.3	
Marble setters' helpers.....	1	2			13.5	2.3		
Plasterers' laborers.....	2	4	5	4	2.0	2.5	1.7	2.5
Plumbers' laborers.....	1	3	2	2	2.9	22.3	2.0	4.6
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers.....		15	2			9.6	4.9	
Terrazzo workers' helpers.....	2	4	1		3.9	6.6	4.3	
Tile layers' helpers.....	1	3	1	1	1.8	7.1	.4	.5

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

About two-thirds of the journeymen receiving pay raises had increases of between 5 and 10 percent; very few journeymen members obtained as much as 10 percent. Practically all of the stonecutters affected by increases obtained at least 10 percent, and almost a third of the reported membership had increases of 15 percent or more. This resulted from increases reported in New York City and Toledo, where a majority (57 percent) of the members of this trade were located. Sign painters (11.1 percent) and mosaic and terrazzo workers (5.2 percent) were the only other trades with significant per-

centages of members receiving increases as high as 10 percent. The carpenters had the greatest proportion of members (15.3 percent) benefiting by increases of from 5 to 10 percent. Seven other trades had more than 10 percent of their members in this bracket. Practically all of the granite cutters and elevator constructors who received increases obtained less than 5 percent over their 1943 scales. The large percentage of granite cutters in this group was due to an increase in New York City, where most of those reporting were located. The largest percentage increase for journeymen (25 percent) was received by some of the paperhangers and sheet-metal workers in Charleston, S. C., where rates were raised from \$1.00 to \$1.25 per hour.

Almost two-fifths of the helper and laborer quotations showed increases of 10 percent or more, and about a fifth showed increases of at least 15 percent during the year. As among the journeymen, the largest number of helper quotations (about half) showed increases of from 5 to 10 percent. Composition roofers' helpers had only two quotations showing increases, but these quotations included almost a quarter of the total membership reported for this trade, all of whom had increases between 5 and 10 percent. Over a fifth of the plumbers' laborers were also in this group. Almost 5 percent of the plumbers' laborers and more than 4 percent of the building laborers had increases of at least 15 percent. The largest percentage increase for helpers and laborers (20 percent) was reported by the building laborers in Springfield, Mass., whose scale rose from 75 to 90 cents per hour.

UNION WAGE RATES, BY CITY

Average Changes in Each City⁴

Minneapolis had the largest percentage increase in wage rates (4.4 percent) for all building-trades workers in the 75 cities from July 1, 1943, to July 1, 1944 (table 5). Seattle (4.3 percent) followed close behind, and Cleveland (4 percent) held third place. Twenty-one other cities had increases higher than the average increase for all cities (0.8 percent). Eleven cities reported no changes in scales during the year.

The percentage increases for journeymen follow closely the increases recorded for all trades. Changes for helpers, however, show no relationship to the changes for all trades combined. Helpers in San Antonio, Tex., had the greatest percentage increase over 1943 (19.3), followed closely by Little Rock (19.2 percent). Helpers in Buffalo received average increases as high as 16.8 percent, and six more cities had increases of 10 percent or more. Thirteen additional cities had increases higher than the increase for all cities combined (1.2 percent). Helper scales remained unchanged in 31 cities.

⁴ These net changes are based on the specific rates for 1943 and 1944, weighted by the membership for each union in 1944. Only those quotations showing comparable data for both years are included. As building-trades wage rates tend to be changed by additions of either 12½ or 10 cents per hour, specific increases for 1944 will reflect larger percentage changes among those trades with comparatively lower actual scales; thus, if the carpenters in city A changed their scale from \$1.00 to \$1.12½ an increase of 12½ percent is registered, while if in city B the increase is from \$1.50 to \$1.625, the percentage change is only 8½ percent. For this reason those cities which have lower scales tend to show greater percentage increases than those which have higher scales. Both table 5 and table 6 should be consulted in making comparisons between cities.

TABLE 5.—Percent of Change in Union Building-Trades Wage Rates in Each City, July 1, 1943, to July 1, 1944

City	Percent of increase			City	Percent of increase		
	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers		All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers
All cities.....	0.8	0.8	1.2	Mobile, Ala.....	0	0	0
Atlanta, Ga.....	1.1	1.1	—	Nashville, Tenn.....	1.2	1.2	1.3
Baltimore, Md.....	.5	.6	.2	Newark, N. J.....	.6	.5	1.0
Binghamton, N. Y.....	.4	0	5.3	New Haven, Conn.....	0	0	0
Birmingham, Ala.....	.3	.4	0	New Orleans, La.....	.9	1.3	0
Boston, Mass.....	.7	.8	(1)	New York, N. Y.....	.2	.2	.2
Buffalo, N. Y.....	1.6	(1)	16.8	Norfolk, Va.....	0	0	0
Butte, Mont.....	.1	.1	(1)	Oklahoma City, Okla.....	.1	.1	0
Charleston, S. C.....	.7	.8	0	Omaha, Nebr.....	.5	.1	2.3
Charleston, W. Va.....	0	0	0	Peoria, Ill.....	.1	.1	(1)
Charlotte, N. C.....	.8	.8	0	Philadelphia, Pa.....	2.0	2.3	.1
Chicago, Ill.....	(1)	0	(1)	Phoenix, Ariz.....	3.3	4.1	0
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	3.0	2.8	5.2	Pittsburgh, Pa.....	.5	.6	0
Cleveland, Ohio.....	4.0	4.3	.8	Portland, Maine.....	2.4	1.4	11.1
Columbus, Ohio.....	.7	.8	0	Portland, Oreg.....	.5	.6	0
Dallas, Tex.....	.5	.5	0	Providence, R. I.....	.4	.2	1.6
Dayton, Ohio.....	.7	.3	7.0	Reading, Pa.....	.2	0	2.0
Denver, Colo.....	.6	.7	0	Richmond, Va.....	.9	.6	4.2
Des Moines, Iowa.....	3.7	3.2	6.1	Rochester, N. Y.....	.6	.7	0
Detroit, Mich.....	.4	.5	.1	Rock Island (Ill.) dis-trict ²	(1)	0	.1
Duluth, Minn.....	.2	.2	(1)	St. Louis, Mo.....	.6	.6	.8
El Paso, Tex.....	0	0	0	St. Paul, Minn.....	2.9	3.0	2.8
Erie, Pa.....	.8	1.0	0	Salt Lake City, Utah.....	.1	.1	0
Grand Rapids, Mich.....	1.7	1.8	.1	San Antonio, Tex.....	1.3	0	19.3
Houston, Tex.....	.1	.1	0	San Francisco, Calif.....	.5	(1)	4.0
Indianapolis, Ind.....	0	0	0	Scranton, Pa.....	.5	.6	0
Jackson, Miss.....	0	0	—	Seattle, Wash.....	4.3	4.1	5.9
Jacksonville, Fla.....	0	0	0	South Bend, Ind.....	.2	.2	0
Kansas City, Mo.....	.6	.6	0	Spokane, Wash.....	0	0	0
Little Rock, Ark.....	.3	.1	19.2	Springfield, Mass.....	2.5	1.0	16.2
Los Angeles, Calif.....	(1)	(1)	.1	Tampa, Fla.....	1.0	1.3	0
Louisville, Ky.....	0	0	0	Toledo, Ohio.....	1.4	1.7	0
Madison, Wis.....	.1	(1)	1.1	Washington, D. C.....	3.2	3.2	3.5
Manchester, N. H.....	0	0	0	Wichita, Kans.....	2.5	.6	14.0
Memphis, Tenn.....	1.9	.7	10.6	Worcester, Mass.....	.4	.4	0
Milwaukee, Wis.....	.7	.8	(1)	York, Pa.....	2.4	1.0	11.3
Minneapolis, Minn.....	4.4	4.9	1.2	Youngstown, Ohio.....	1.7	.5	10.0

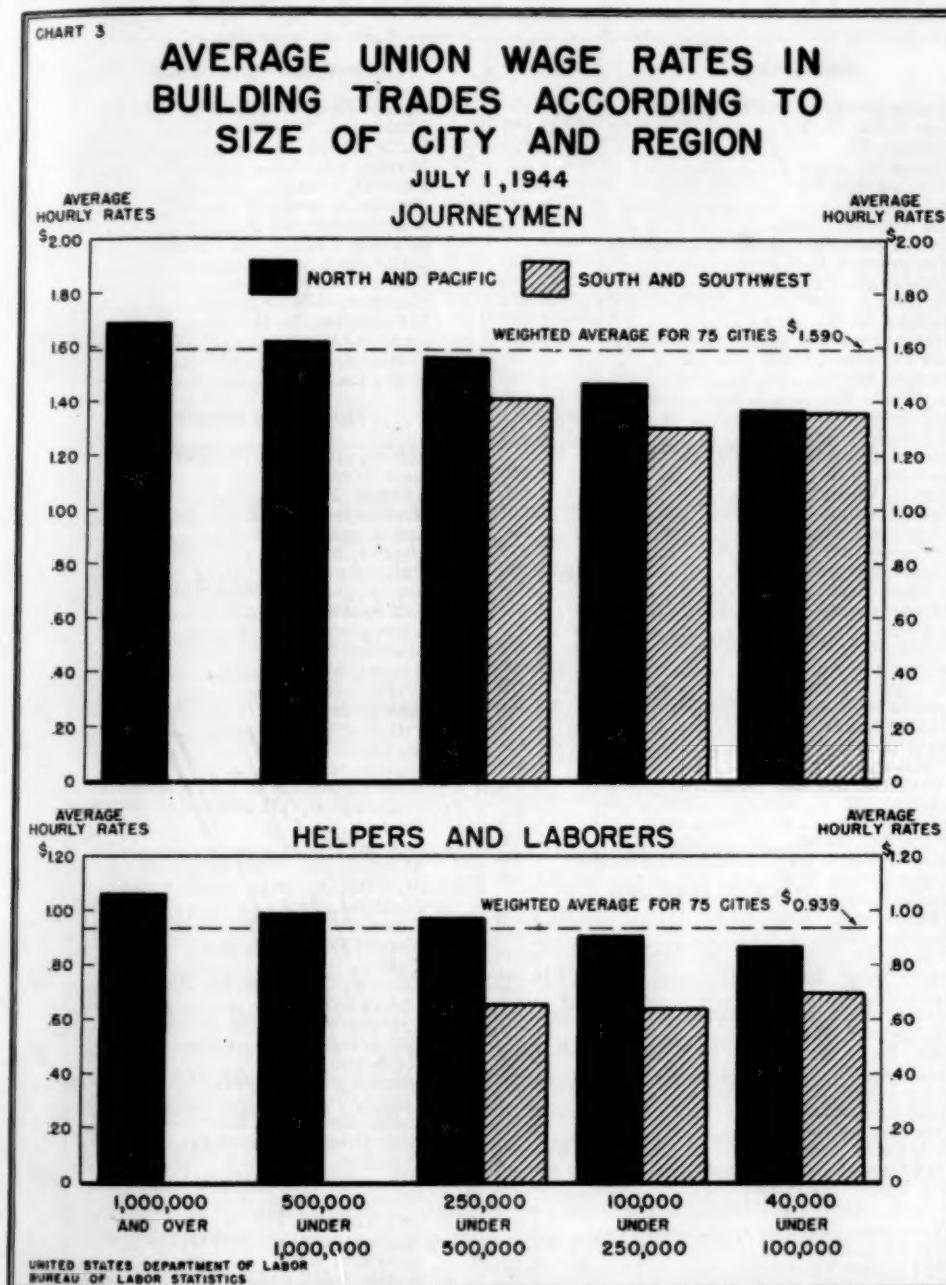
¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.² Includes Rock Island and Moline, Ill., and Davenport, Iowa.Average Rates, by Size of City³

Newark had the highest average hourly rate (\$1.90) for all of the 75 cities studied (table 6). New York (\$1.868) was second, far ahead of Washington in third place with an average of \$1.749. Chicago had the second highest average (\$1.72) among the largest (group I) cities, but this was almost 15 cents lower than the New York average. No other city in this group exceeded the group average (\$1.691). Pittsburgh (\$1.740) was very close behind Washington, which had the highest average in group II. The Cleveland and Buffalo averages also exceeded that for group II (\$1.617).

Seattle (\$1.62) was second in group III; but its average was 28 cents lower than that of Newark which had the highest average of any of the

³ The averages presented are weighted according to the number of members in each local union covered by the reported rates and in many cases may be lower than a simple average of specific rates owing to the heavy memberships in the less-skilled trades which carry the lower rates. Although a comparison of average rates between cities where averages include the influence of the weighting factor (membership) may be misleading, owing to unusually high or low memberships in some cities in comparison with the same trades in other cities, a weighted average of this kind is obviously more realistic than a simple average. In the latter case, a wage rate for a trade including half a dozen members would be given the same importance as a trade including several hundred members.

75 cities. Five other cities had averages higher than the group III average (\$1.504). Youngstown, with an average of \$1.616, led group IV cities, and 11 other cities had averages exceeding the group average



(\$1.415). Charleston, W. Va. (\$1.581) had the highest average in group V cities, while York, Pa., not only had the lowest average in this group but also the lowest for any city studied (\$1.129).

TABLE 6.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Building Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, July 1, 1944*

City and population group	Average hourly rate	City and population group	Average hourly rate
<i>Journeymen</i>			
Population group I (over 1,000,000):		Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
New York, N. Y.	\$1.868	Charleston, W. Va.	\$1.581
Chicago, Ill.	1.720	Butte, Mont.	1.571
<i>Average for group I</i>	1.691	Mobile, Ala.	1.410
Philadelphia, Pa.	1.620	Phoenix, Ariz.	1.390
Detroit, Mich.	1.583	<i>Average for group V</i>	1.396
Los Angeles, Calif.	1.430	Binghamton, N. Y.	1.363
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):		El Paso, Tex.	1.361
Washington, D. C.	1.749	Little Rock, Ark.	1.359
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1.740	Charleston, S. C.	1.344
Cleveland, Ohio	1.673	Madison, Wis.	1.322
Buffalo, N. Y.	1.637	Manchester, N. H.	1.288
<i>Average for group II</i>	1.617	Jackson, Miss.	1.229
San Francisco, Calif.	1.566	Portland, Me.	1.218
Boston, Mass.	1.500	York, Pa.	1.129
St. Louis, Mo.	1.556	<i>Helpers and laborers</i>	
Baltimore, Md.	1.511	Population group I (over 1,000,000):	
Milwaukee, Wis.	1.444	New York, N. Y.	1.222
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):		Chicago, Ill.	1.115
Newark, N. J.	1.900	<i>Average for group I</i>	1.053
Seattle, Wash.	1.620	Los Angeles, Calif.	.951
Toledo, Ohio	1.601	Detroit, Mich.	.938
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.597	Philadelphia, Pa.	.845
Rochester, N. Y.	1.579	Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):	
Kansas City, Mo.	1.550	San Francisco, Calif.	1.060
Denver, Colo.	1.505	Cleveland, Ohio	1.055
<i>Average for group III</i>	1.504	Milwaukee, Wis.	1.041
Indianapolis, Ind.	1.498	Boston, Mass.	1.024
Columbus, Ohio	1.495	Buffalo, N. Y.	1.020
Minneapolis, Minn.	1.495	<i>Average for group II</i>	.997
St. Paul, Minn.	1.473	Pittsburgh, Pa.	.980
Louisville, Ky.	1.460	St. Louis, Mo.	.980
Houston, Tex.	1.449	Baltimore, Md.	.944
Birmingham, Ala.	1.424	Washington, D. C.	.937
Portland, Oreg.	1.418	Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):	
Providence, R. I.	1.391	Newark, N. J.	1.247
Dallas, Tex.	1.379	Seattle, Wash.	1.169
Atlanta, Ga.	1.374	Minneapolis, Minn.	.985
Memphis, Tenn.	1.363	St. Paul, Minn.	.974
New Orleans, La.	1.333	Portland, Oreg.	.972
San Antonio, Tex.	1.326	Cincinnati, Ohio	.955
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):		Kansas City, Mo.	.950
Youngstown, Ohio	1.616	Toledo, Ohio	.948
Dayton, Ohio	1.555	Denver, Colo.	.988
Peoria, Ill.	1.544	Indianapolis, Ind.	.894
South Bend, Ind.	1.531	Providence, R. I.	.872
Spokane, Wash.	1.521	Columbus, Ohio	.859
New Haven, Conn.	1.520	Rochester, N. Y.	.857
Springfield, Mass.	1.510	<i>Average for group III</i>	.890
Erie, Pa.	1.486	Dallas, Tex.	.725
Reading, Pa.	1.480	Louisville, Ky.	.720
Rock Island (Ill.) district	1.454	New Orleans, La.	.656
Grand Rapids, Mich.	1.425	Houston, Tex.	.635
Des Moines, Iowa	1.418	Birmingham, Ala.	.618
<i>Average for group IV</i>	1.415	Memphis, Tenn.	.616
Oklahoma City, Okla.	1.392	San Antonio, Tex.	.615
Salt Lake City, Utah	1.382	Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
Omaha, Nebr.	1.376	Spokane, Wash.	1.025
Worcester, Mass.	1.375	South Bend, Ind.	1.023
Scranton, Pa.	1.372	Peoria, Ill.	1.007
Richmond, Va.	1.323	New Haven, Conn.	.989
Duluth, Minn.	1.314	Springfield, Mass.	.978
Jacksonville, Fla.	1.299	Salt Lake City, Utah	.953
Tampa, Fla.	1.297	Dayton, Ohio	.946
Norfolk, Va.	1.296	Rock Island (Ill.) district	.901
Wichita, Kans.	1.295	* Co there i	
Nashville, Tenn.	1.293		
Charlotte, N. C.	1.159		

Includes Rock Island and Moline, Ill., and Davenport, Iowa.

TABLE 6.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Building Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, July 1, 1944—Continued*

Average hourly rate	City and population group	Average hourly rate	City and population group	Average hourly rate
<i>Helpers and laborers—Continued</i>				
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000) —Continued.				
\$1.581 1.571 1.410 1.390 1.398 1.363 1.361 1.359 1.344 1.322 1.288 1.226 1.218 1.129	Scranton, Pa. Worcester, Mass. Erie, Pa. Des Moines, Iowa Youngstown, Ohio <i>Average for group IV</i>	\$0.883 .883 .870 .853 .852 .844 .811 .803 .763 .761 .755 .694 .682 .671	Nashville, Tenn. Tampa, Fla. Butte, Mont. Portland, Maine Madison, Wis. Phoenix, Ariz. Charleston, W. Va. Binghamton, N. Y. York, Pa. Manchester, N. H. <i>Average for group V</i> Little Rock, Ark. Mobile, Ala. Charleston, S. C.	\$0.587 .561 .945 .927 .878 .846 .836 .818 .794 .766 .757 .704 .689 .520

Newark also had the best average among the helpers and laborers (\$1.247 per hour), followed closely by New York (\$1.222); Seattle was third (\$1.169). In addition, Chicago (\$1.115) in group I, San Francisco (\$1.06), Cleveland (\$1.055), Milwaukee (\$1.041), Boston (\$1.024), and Buffalo (\$1.02) in group II, Spokane (\$1.025), South Bend (\$1.023), and Peoria (\$1.007) in group IV, all had averages exceeding \$1.00. The lowest average for helpers (52 cents) was found in Charleston, S. C.

Average Rates by Region and Trade

Excluding regional differences, the largest cities had the highest average rates for the journeyman trades as well as for all building trades combined (table 7). This did not hold true for the helpers and laborers, however, where cities in size group IV had a slightly higher average than those in group III. This direct variation by city size did not hold for the individual trades, occurring in only 12 of the journeyman and 5 of the helper and laborer trades.

A comparison of averages for journeymen, helpers, and all building trades combined, in the North and Pacific region⁶ shows that the largest cities reported the highest wage scales. This relationship also holds in 14 of the individual journeyman and 7 of the helper and laborer trades. In the South and Southwest there were only three cases of direct variation by city size among the journeyman trades and none among the helpers. In all but 3 of the 32 possible comparisons between size IV and V cities, size V cities in the South and Southwest region had higher averages than size IV cities.

⁶ Comparison of average rates on a regional basis is confined to cities in size groups III, IV, and V since there is no city in the South or Southwest with a population of 500,000 or more.

TABLE 7.—Average Union Wage Rate in Each Building Trade, by Region and Population Group, July 1, 1944

Trade	Cities in population group ¹											
	Group I ²		Group II ²		Group III			Group IV			Group V	
	North and Pacific	North and Pacific	All cities	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	All cities	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	All cities	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	
All building trades	\$1.597	\$1.515	\$1.364	\$1.457	\$1.216	\$1.316	\$1.357	\$1.224	\$1.256	\$1.290	\$1.231	
Journeymen	1.691	1.617	1.504	1.560	1.404	1.415	1.467	1.307	1.366	1.368	1.364	
Asbestos workers	1.718	1.644	1.535	1.501	1.578	1.485	1.502	1.465	1.523	1.589	1.500	
Boilermakers	1.896	1.681	1.610	1.629	1.506	1.609	1.667	1.500	1.561	1.621	1.500	
Bricklayers	1.898	1.794	1.693	1.730	1.645	1.650	1.692	1.569	1.626	1.641	1.604	
Carpenters	1.639	1.566	1.439	1.515	1.319	1.311	1.387	1.186	1.268	1.255	1.278	
Cement finishers	1.637	1.572	1.475	1.506	1.438	1.380	1.419	1.318	1.403	1.410	1.400	
Electricians, inside wiremen	1.835	1.688	1.649	1.675	1.594	1.528	1.554	1.469	1.444	1.407	1.482	
Elevator constructors	1.835	1.768	1.608	1.654	1.535	1.569	1.587	1.488	1.508	1.505	1.512	
Glaziers	1.691	1.535	1.356	1.389	1.207	1.249	1.282	1.155	1.218	1.265	1.185	
Granite cutters	1.614	(*)	1.304						(*)	(*)		
Lathers	1.687	1.706	1.623	1.675	1.546	1.511	1.515	1.500	1.543	1.632	1.492	
Machinists	1.659	1.524	1.555	1.568	1.544	1.468	1.490	1.429	1.428	1.620	(*)	
Marble setters	1.680	1.557	1.557	1.577	1.527	1.551	1.565	1.500	1.586	1.533	1.639	
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	1.716	1.536	1.450	1.440	1.468	1.503	1.507	1.479	1.502	1.481	1.525	
Painters	1.630	1.530	1.425	1.491	1.282	1.312	1.353	1.221	1.217	1.138	1.261	
Paperhanglers	1.629	1.557	1.414	1.465	1.213	1.297	1.319	1.211	1.200	1.177	1.240	
Plasterers	1.798	1.743	1.607	1.681	1.524	1.573	1.629	1.494	1.530	1.566	1.502	
Plumbers and gas fitters	1.751	1.662	1.621	1.634	1.508	1.531	1.549	1.500	1.568	1.540	1.592	
Rodmen	1.621	1.671	1.475	1.618	1.344	1.461	1.563	1.263	1.392	1.507	1.284	
Roofers, composition	1.637	1.491	1.361	1.460	1.104	1.256	1.308	1.026	1.273	1.180	1.353	
Roofers, slate and tile	1.680	1.689	1.414	1.521	1.172	1.248	1.346	1.029	1.299	1.315	1.290	
Sheet-metal workers	1.720	1.589	1.546	1.589	1.457	1.399	1.444	1.271	1.357	1.368	1.347	
Sign painters	1.861	1.560	1.510	1.552	1.409	1.368	1.399	1.271	1.282	1.243	1.292	
Steam and sprinkler fitters	1.718	1.637	1.618	1.622	1.597	1.526	1.537	1.500	1.576	1.572	1.580	
Stonecutters	1.833	1.621	1.483	1.513	1.196	—	1.293	—	(*)	—	(*)	
Stonemasons	1.645	1.649	1.635	1.620	1.681	1.634	1.647	1.538	1.474	1.517	1.406	
Structural-iron workers	1.743	1.779	1.599	1.686	1.531	1.500	1.622	1.436	1.536	1.589	1.500	
Tile layers	1.561	1.561	1.520	1.564	1.449	1.466	1.493	1.432	1.527	1.428	1.604	
Helpers and laborers	1.053	.997	.826	.976	.656	.844	.902	.637	.757	.865	.693	
Bricklayers' tenders	1.102	1.102	.943	1.028	.747	.915	.952	.722	.864	.943	.749	
Building laborers	.965	.952	.784	.943	.642	.812	.864	.599	.716	.817	.676	
Composition roofers' helpers	(*)	.933	.718	.784	(*)	.797	.907	.583	.750	(*)	(*)	
Elevator constructors' helpers	1.286	1.220	1.165	1.177	1.094	1.103	1.119	1.027	1.033	1.037	1.030	
Marble setters' helpers	1.185	1.016	.943	1.004	.667	—	.939	—	(*)	(*)	—	
Plasterers' laborers	1.229	1.208	.988	1.112	.748	.846	1.069	.643	.951	.986	.893	
Plumbers' laborers	1.443	1.026	.887	.981	.649	.809	.866	.689	.781	.794	.750	
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	1.336	.935	1.023	1.049	.804	(*)	(*)	—	.871	.870	(*)	
Terrazzo workers' helpers	1.271	1.060	1.087	1.121	.845	—	1.038	—	—	.919	—	
Tile layers' helpers	1.103	1.055	.987	1.037	.667	—	.943	—	.885	(*)	.850	

¹ Group I includes cities over 1,000,000 population; group II, 500,000 to 1,000,000; group III, 250,000 to 500,000; group IV, 100,000 to 250,000; and group V, 40,000 to 100,000.

² No city of this size in the South or Southwest.

³ Insufficient quotations to compute an average.

Average rates are higher in the North and Pacific region than in the South and Southwest for journeymen and helpers considered separately, as well as for all building trades combined. The differences in favor of the North and Pacific are most noticeable among the helpers and laborers, where the difference in group III cities is 32 cents per hour; in group IV, 26.5 cents; and in group V, 17.2 cents.

The difference for journeymen is 15.6 cents in group III, 16 cents in group IV, but only four-tenths of 1 cent in group V. Among the individual journeyman trades there are 75 possibilities for comparison of the wage rates on a regional basis. In 60 of these cases the North and Pacific region has higher average scales than the South and Southwest region. Twelve of the 15 differences in favor of the South and Southwest appear in size V cities. Four of the five cities with the lowest average in this size group are in the North and Pacific region, York, Pa., having the lowest average for all cities (see table 6).

As previously stated, differences in average rates in favor of the North and Pacific region are most marked among the helper and laborer trades. Among 20 possibilities for comparison of averages between the two regions, every one shows a higher average for the North and Pacific region, the greatest difference being 42.6 cents for the plasterers' laborers in group IV cities.

Overtime and Sunday Rates

Overtime and Sunday rates provided by union agreements have in most cases been adjusted by mutual understanding and in accordance with policies adopted by the Wage Adjustment Board for this industry, which call for time and a half after 40 hours per week and for Saturday or Sunday work. As union agreements often call for double time for all overtime and practically always for Saturday or Sunday work, the adjustments in overtime rates are specifically limited to the duration of the war and are not usually made in writing.

Weekly Hours

TREND OF STRAIGHT-TIME WEEKLY HOURS, 1907 TO 1944

During the period July 1, 1943, to July 1, 1944, average weekly hours for all building-trades workers increased only two-tenths of 1 percent, based on comparable quotations obtained for both years (table 8). Average straight-time hours for journeymen advanced 0.2 percent, but scales for helpers registered no change. This slight increase in hours resulted from the adoption of the 40-hour week on non-Government work to avoid confusion caused by having two different hour scales operating within one jurisdiction. Regulations on Government work normally require 40 hours per week at straight time before overtime payments can be made.

Hour scales for building journeymen dropped steadily from 1907 to 1929, except for a slight increase after the 1922 depression. The decline in hours was accelerated between 1929 and 1938 by the establishment of shorter straight-time hours in an effort to spread the work among more union members. Hour decreases during this period ranged from 9 percent for elevator constructors, roofers, sign painters, and stonemasons to 17 percent for granite cutters. In the latter part of 1940 and in 1941, when the Federal Government started its war program of heavy construction, the requirement of 40 hours at straight time caused the index to show a slight rise. The index of weekly hours, however, can be expected to show a sharp drop after the war as many of the provisions for hour changes are verbal, and in the written provisions, clauses have been inserted stating that any increases in hours are to terminate immediately at the end of the war.

TABLE 8.—*Indexes of Union Weekly Hours in All Building Trades, 1907 to 1944*

[1939 = 100]

Year	All trades	Journey-men	Helpers and laborers	Year	All trades	Journey-men	Helpers and laborers
1907	124.3	123.8	126.1	1926	114.9	115.1	113.9
1908	122.4	122.0	123.5	1927	114.7	114.8	113.9
1909	120.7	120.5	121.0	1928	114.0	114.0	113.8
1910	119.2	119.1	118.8	1929	113.0	113.3	111.5
1911	118.8	118.7	118.6	1930	109.8	110.0	109.0
1912	118.4	118.3	118.3	1931	108.5	108.5	108.1
1913	118.2	118.0	118.3	1932	106.5	106.6	105.7
1914	117.7	117.7	117.6	1933	106.2	106.2	105.2
1915	117.6	117.6	117.5	1934	102.3	102.3	101.9
1916	117.2	117.1	117.2	1935	101.5	101.5	101.2
1917	116.9	116.9	116.7	1936	101.5	101.5	101.4
1918	116.3	116.2	116.3	1937	101.9	101.9	101.8
1919	115.7	115.7	115.2	1938	100.2	100.1	100.2
1920	115.1	115.2	114.5	1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
1921	115.0	115.1	114.5	1940	99.9	100.0	99.4
1922	115.0	115.2	114.2	1941	100.3	100.5	99.7
1923	115.1	115.3	114.4	1942	101.1	101.8	98.8
1924	115.1	115.3	114.4	1943	101.0	102.0	98.1
1925	115.1	115.3	114.2	1944	101.2	102.2	98.1

Hour scales for helpers also dropped steadily from 1907 to 1929, except for a slight rise after the 1922 depression. Between 1929 and 1938 there were several hour changes resulting in a general drop of 11 percent during this period. The 40-hour week on Federal building projects has tended to decrease hours for helpers since 1941 rather than to increase them. Before the war, several helper and laborer trades in some cities reported straight-time hour scales in excess of 40.

WEEKLY HOURS, 1944

Straight-time weekly hours provided by union agreements averaged 39.9 on July 1, 1944. Journey-men averaged 39.8 and helpers 40 hours per week (table 9). Although many unions in past years reported the existence of straight-time hours below 40 per week, the agreement between the Government agencies and the Building and Construction Trades Department of the American Federation of Labor has made the 40-hour straight-time week almost universal.⁷

In many cities where unions had established 30- or 35-hour straight-time workweeks for private work, it was agreed to set aside these short weeks on all work to avoid confusion. It was easier to recruit good men for the essential Government work if the overtime rates for this work were effective after the same number of hours as for private work. In addition, all unions bringing cases before the Wage Adjustment Board since April 1944 must agree to abide by the policy of that board which calls for a 40-hour straight-time workweek. Those trades that are not active at present in war construction or any other building construction work (the granite cutters, stonecutters, mosaic and terrazzo workers, and marble setters) still have substantial numbers of their members under agreements calling for fewer than 40 hours per week. The sign painters, whose work is generally private, and the painters and glaziers, who do a large amount of private repair and renovation work, also have many members working a 35-hour

⁷ An agreement between the Building and Construction Trades Department of the American Federation of Labor and the Contracting Agencies of the United States Government, dated May 22, 1942, effective July 1, 1942, stabilized wages and established the straight-time 40-hour week on all Government projects.

straight-time week. Twelve journeyman trades averaged exactly 40 hours. Only 0.2 percent of all the building-trades workers covered had straight-time weeks in excess of 40 hours, and only 0.4 percent worked under agreements calling for as short a workweek as 30 hours.

TABLE 9.—*Distribution of Union Members in Each Building Trade, by Weekly Hours, July 1, 1944*

Trade	Average hours per week	Percent of union members having workweeks of—			
		30 hours	35 hours	40 hours	44 hours and over
All building trades	39.9	0.4	2.4	97.0	0.2
Journeymen	39.8	.4	2.6	96.9	.1
Asbestos workers	39.8	1.9	—	98.1	—
Boilermakers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Bricklayers	40.0	.1	—	99.9	—
Carpenters	40.0	.2	—	99.8	—
Cement finishers	40.0	(1)	2.3	95.6	2.1
Electricians, inside wiremen	40.0	.1	—	99.9	(1)
Elevator constructors	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Glaziers	39.4	—	12.6	86.9	.5
Granite cutters	35.8	—	84.9	15.1	—
Lathers	39.9	1.0	.9	98.1	—
Machinists	39.9	—	1.5	98.5	—
Marble setters	39.3	—	14.1	85.9	—
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	38.7	—	26.8	73.2	—
Painters	39.4	—	12.7	87.3	—
Paperhangers	39.8	—	3.9	95.2	.9
Plasterers	39.9	.7	.5	98.8	—
Plumbers and gas fitters	39.4	6.2	(1)	93.7	.1
Rodmen	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Roofers, composition	39.8	—	4.3	95.0	.7
Roofers, slate and tile	40.0	—	—	99.8	.2
Sheet-metal workers	40.0	—	.9	99.1	—
Sign painters	39.3	—	16.3	81.3	2.4
Steam and sprinkler fitters	40.0	(1)	—	100.0	—
Stonecutters	38.2	—	35.5	64.5	—
Stonemasons	39.7	—	5.4	94.6	—
Structural-iron workers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Tile layers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Helpers and laborers	40.0	.1	1.0	98.3	.6
Bricklayers' tenders	39.9	.1	3.2	95.6	1.1
Building laborers	40.0	—	.2	99.2	.6
Composition roofers' helpers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Elevator constructors' helpers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Marble setters' helpers	39.4	—	11.1	88.9	—
Plasterers' laborers	40.0	.7	—	98.5	.8
Plumbers' laborers	40.0	—	—	98.9	1.1
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—
Terrazzo workers' helpers	38.2	—	36.4	63.6	—
Tile layers' helpers	40.0	—	—	100.0	—

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Seven of the 10 helper trades averaged 40 hours, and only the terrazzo workers' helpers (36.4 percent) and the marble setters' helpers (11.1 percent) had a material number of members working less than 40 hours. Four trades had a few members covered by straight-time workweeks in excess of 40 hours.

CHANGES IN WEEKLY HOURS BETWEEN 1943 AND 1944

*On the basis of comparable quotations for 1943 and 1944 there was practically no change in weekly hours during the year. Over 99 percent of the quotations, including an equal proportion of journeymen and helpers, provided the same hours for both years. Twenty-one journeyman and 6 helper and laborer trades reported no change since 1943.

Where unions have agreed to an increase in straight-time weekly hours on private work from 30 or 35 to 40, these hour increases are all to be terminated as soon as the war ends.



Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to October 1944

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to October 1944.¹ The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged \$46.98 in October 1944—102.6 percent above the average in January 1939, 76.4 percent above January 1941, and 20.8 percent above October 1942. Such factors as longer hours of work, merit increases for individual workers, premium pay for overtime worked, changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in earnings.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 103.1 cents in October 1944—63.1 percent above the average in January 1939, 51.0 percent above January 1941, and 15.5 percent above October 1942.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to October 1944

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings ¹			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings weighted by January 1939 employment ²		
	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1939: Jan.	\$23.19	\$25.33	\$21.57	\$0.632	\$0.696	\$0.583	\$0.623	\$0.688	\$0.574	\$0.623	\$0.688	\$0.574
1940: Jan.	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.644	.703	.589	.635	.697	.589
1941: Jan.	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601	.648	.711	.600
1942: Jan.	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.762	.835	.670	.729	.810	.667
July	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.809	.885	.701	.759	.846	.694
Oct.	38.80	45.31	30.66	.893	.990	.751	.839	.919	.723	.782	.869	.716
1943: Jan.	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.859	.941	.733	.794	.886	.724
Apr.	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.878	.957	.751	.808	.897	.741
July	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.899	.981	.766	.823	.919	.750
Oct.	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.086	.824	.916	.997	.781	.836	.929	.765
Dec.	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.927	1.011	.788	.846	.942	.773
1944: Jan.	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.931	1.013	.793	.850	.945	.778
Apr.	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.013	1.110	.850	.942	1.023	.806	.862	.955	.792
July	45.43	51.07	37.05	1.018	1.116	.862	.950	1.035	.815	.874	.973	.799
Aug.	45.88	51.84	37.15	1.016	1.112	.864	.945	1.025	.818	.870	.959	.803
Sept. ³	46.25	52.19	37.67	1.031	1.131	.876	.961	1.046	.829	.886	.979	.815
Oct. ³	46.98	53.24	37.99	1.031	1.129	.878	.956	1.037	.829	.882	.969	.815

¹ Average hourly earnings, excluding the effect of premium pay for overtime.

² Average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime, weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of the manufacturing industry for January 1939.

³ Preliminary.

¹ Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939-43, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (pp. 869-884), especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, October 1944, table 6 (p. 211), of this issue.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. The effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in October 1944 was 96.5 cents per hour; this was 53.5 percent higher than in January 1939, 44.0 percent above January 1941, and 13.9 percent above October 1942.

The shift of workers from relatively low-wage to relatively high-wage industries since 1939 would have raised the average earnings of factory workers, even if no other influences had been present. The effects of such interindustry shifts have been eliminated from the averages shown in columns 10 to 12 of the table. If employment had been distributed between industries as it was in January 1939, the straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers would have averaged 88.2 cents in October 1944, or 41.6 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 36.1 percent above January 1941, and 12.8 percent above October 1942. Between September 1944 and October 1944 the decrease in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to 0.5 percent. Even this latter series of averages exaggerates the rise in wage rates, because it includes the influence of interplant shifts of employment, merit increases for individual workers, and premium rates for work on extra shifts and on holidays.



Hours and Earnings of Men and Women in Michigan Factories, August 1944

IN August 1944, slightly over 25 percent of the wage earners in the durable-goods group of the manufacturing industries of Michigan were women, as compared to approximately 32 percent in the nondurable-goods group.¹ In all industries men's hours were longer than those of women, the difference being more marked in the nondurable-goods group. Women's hours are restricted by the State law, which limits them to 54 per week. Male wage earners have no legal limits on their hours, which in the month under survey averaged 54.8 in meat packing, 54.5 in the manufacture of jewelry, instruments, etc., and 50 or more in the manufacture of agricultural machinery, other machinery, screw-machine products, millwork, baking, confectionery, dairy products, ice cream, paper products, petroleum products and coal, and other textile-products industries. The difference in the average workweek of men and of women contributes substantially to the margin of \$15.22 in the average weekly wages of men and women. The highest average earnings for men were reported for the machine-tool-and-accessories industry—\$69.92 per week and \$1.457 per hour. The highest average earnings for women were in the engine-turbine, etc., industry—\$59.12 per week and \$1.362 per hour, as shown in the accompanying table.

¹ Data are from Michigan Labor and Industry (Lansing, Mich., Department of Labor and Industry), October 1944, pp. 4-5.

*Hours and Earnings of Men and Women in Michigan Manufacturing Industries,
August 1944*

Industry	Number of plants reporting	Females as percent of all workers	Average weekly hours		Average weekly earnings		Average hourly earnings		Females' hourly earnings as percent of those of males
			Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
All manufacturing	1,213	25.9	46.7	43.5	\$63.16	\$47.94	\$1.352	\$1.101	81.4
Durable goods	791	25.3	46.7	43.9	\$64.08	\$50.14	\$1.373	\$1.142	83.2
Nondurable goods	422	31.8	47.4	40.9	\$53.22	\$30.70	\$1.124	.751	66.8
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Transportation machinery and equipment:									
Automobiles	71	23.5	46.2	44.3	\$61.39	\$52.41	\$1.330	\$1.184	89.0
Automobile parts	62	26.2	46.9	41.0	\$64.09	\$46.45	\$1.366	\$1.134	83.0
Aircraft and parts	25	35.7	46.2	45.4	\$64.12	\$58.10	\$1.388	\$1.281	92.3
Shipbuilding	12	28.4	45.9	41.9	\$55.30	\$40.81	\$1.204	.974	80.9
Car building and repairing	20	3.4	48.2	41.5	\$49.64	\$35.81	\$1.029	.863	83.9
Other transportation equipment	5	10.8	47.3	38.6	\$56.25	\$38.91	\$1.190	1.007	84.6
Machinery, nontransportation:									
Agricultural machinery	7	11.5	52.2	43.0	\$63.54	\$40.26	\$1.218	.936	76.8
Office and household machinery	10	21.9	46.7	44.5	\$62.87	\$44.79	\$1.345	1.007	74.9
Other electrical machinery	17	54.9	47.4	41.5	\$54.70	\$35.17	\$1.154	.847	73.4
Engines, turbines, etc.	13	25.1	48.0	43.4	\$69.28	\$59.12	\$1.445	1.362	94.3
Foundry and machine shops	133	21.1	48.2	43.9	\$59.74	\$43.64	\$1.241	.993	80.0
Machine tools and accessories	58	15.7	47.9	44.2	\$69.92	\$47.89	\$1.457	1.082	74.3
Radios	3	58.5	45.9	40.7	\$51.57	\$39.65	\$1.124	.973	86.6
Other machinery	14	14.4	51.9	41.8	\$57.38	\$34.26	\$1.105	.820	74.2
Iron, steel, and their products (other than machinery):									
Blast furnaces, etc.	22	5.3	46.0	40.3	\$63.72	\$43.65	\$1.384	1.084	78.3
Tools	13	29.6	47.9	46.0	\$65.93	\$43.57	\$1.376	.947	68.8
Screw-machine products	14	25.2	52.1	44.5	\$66.63	\$45.70	\$1.280	1.026	80.2
Structural and ornamental work	10	7.5	47.5	43.2	\$67.37	\$47.63	\$1.417	1.103	77.8
Iron, pipe, and plumber's supplies	8	32.0	47.3	45.2	\$63.64	\$52.42	\$1.345	1.158	86.1
Wire work	16	45.9	47.6	41.2	\$55.87	\$38.71	\$1.174	.940	80.1
Hardware, stamped ware, etc.	48	42.7	49.5	45.1	\$63.79	\$44.71	\$1.288	.992	77.0
Stoves and heating apparatus	25	16.9	47.6	43.6	\$55.35	\$35.41	\$1.162	.813	70.0
Nonferrous metals and their products:									
Smelting and refining	9	10.9	48.2	43.4	\$63.39	\$47.96	\$1.315	1.104	84.0
Nonferrous-metal products	47	28.0	47.0	42.9	\$59.71	\$42.95	\$1.270	1.001	78.8
Jewelry, instruments, etc.	4	54.2	54.5	40.6	\$51.72	\$29.89	.948	.737	77.7
Forest products:									
Sawmills and logging operations	16	.5	47.8	42.7	\$45.39	\$37.13	.950	.869	91.5
Millwork	26	30.5	50.2	43.3	\$44.14	\$27.95	.880	.646	73.4
Furniture and finished products	44	22.6	47.8	40.5	\$46.77	\$31.71	.978	.783	80.1
Other wood products	6	53.1	48.7	44.9	\$41.11	\$31.16	.845	.694	82.1
Stone, clay, and glass products:									
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	15	3.9	48.3	42.2	\$42.79	\$32.21	.886	.764	86.2
Cement and concrete	11	1.3	49.3	39.0	\$47.68	\$30.33	.967	.778	80.5
Other stone, clay, and glass products	7	25.6	49.9	42.0	\$53.97	\$31.16	1.082	.742	68.6
<i>Nondurable goods</i>									
Food and kindred products:									
Baking	18	48.7	50.0	42.2	\$47.85	\$27.86	.958	.660	68.9
Beet-sugar refining	12	1.2	40.0	18.8	\$33.92	\$12.40	.848	.660	77.8
Beverages, including breweries	14	9.6	48.6	40.3	\$60.58	\$41.60	1.247	1.032	82.8
Canning and preserving	31	44.9	44.1	35.5	\$30.40	\$19.68	.689	.554	80.4
Confectionery	7	83.7	50.1	42.2	\$43.61	\$26.38	.870	.625	71.8
Dairy products	17	16.8	53.2	45.6	\$41.80	\$25.76	.786	.564	71.8
Flour and feeds	14	9.1	47.3	42.6	\$39.53	\$28.30	.836	.664	79.4
Ice cream	6	32.8	50.2	43.3	\$50.68	\$32.39	1.010	.748	74.1
Meat packing	8	34.9	54.8	44.3	\$57.13	\$32.12	1.042	.725	69.6
Other food products	6	38.7	45.7	40.8	\$54.36	\$34.48	1.191	.846	71.0
Paper and printing:									
Paper and pulp	44	18.3	48.2	42.3	\$47.48	\$28.97	.986	.685	69.5
Paper products	17	34.9	50.9	42.6	\$52.01	\$36.70	1.021	.864	84.6
Book and job printing	32	37.5	45.4	39.2	\$51.09	\$26.99	1.125	.688	61.2
Newspapers and periodicals	14	7.1	42.0	37.2	\$58.34	\$26.32	1.388	.707	50.9
Engraving, lithographing, etc.	7	7.6	45.5	41.6	\$58.68	\$21.10	1.290	.507	39.3

*Hours and Earnings of Men and Women in Michigan Manufacturing Industries,
August 1944—Continued*

Females' hourly earnings as percent of those of males	Industry	Number of plants reporting	Females as percent of all workers	Average weekly hours		Average weekly earnings		Average hourly earnings		Females' hourly earnings as percent of those of males
				Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>										
81.4	Chemicals, petroleum, and coal products:									
83.2	Chemicals	23	8.4	48.4	43.8	\$60.86	\$43.83	\$1.257	\$1.000	79.6
66.8	Pharmaceuticals and cosmetics	7	53.0	48.1	45.0	49.38	29.28	1.028	.651	63.3
89.0	Paints and varnishes	17	12.2	48.3	43.0	54.63	36.57	1.131	.850	75.2
83.0	Other chemical products	15	26.1	47.2	43.3	52.47	40.32	1.111	.932	83.9
92.3	Petroleum products and coal	5	1.6	50.2	42.4	44.18	23.80	.880	.561	63.8
80.9	Textiles and their products:									
83.9	Woolens and worsteds	5	39.5	45.4	36.6	39.43	26.17	.869	.716	82.4
84.6	Hosiery and knit goods	6	79.5	46.0	39.7	44.57	27.35	.969	.689	71.1
76.8	Clothing made from textiles	22	89.4	43.2	38.8	39.20	26.06	.907	.672	74.1
74.9	Other textiles and products	13	64.4	51.1	40.3	51.00	34.36	.998	.853	85.5
73.4	Leather and its manufactures:									
94.3	Tanning and finishing	11	10.3	46.7	43.8	46.11	32.87	.986	.750	76.1
80.0	Leather products	4	57.2	43.3	40.7	37.46	27.71	.866	.681	78.6
74.3	Boots and shoes	5	58.6	46.3	42.3	44.28	27.50	.957	.650	67.9
86.6	Rubber products:									
74.2	Tires and tubes	3	18.5	45.3	42.0	69.72	44.02	1.541	1.049	68.1
91.5	Other rubber goods	3	47.0	45.8	41.6	60.24	38.49	1.316	.926	70.4
77.7	Miscellaneous industries:									
86.2	Tobacco	12	80.4	47.6	40.6	46.34	27.91	.974	.687	70.5
80.1	Sporting goods, toys, optical goods, and musical instruments	10	44.2	46.5	43.4	46.90	31.48	1.009	.725	71.9
82.1	Other miscellaneous industries	14	35.0	47.7	41.2	53.15	33.86	1.115	.822	73.7

In October 1942, women constituted only 8.5 percent of the wage earners employed in the durable-goods group of industries. In August 1944, the corresponding percentage was 25.3.

The percentage of women wage earners quadrupled in the automobile and automobile-parts industries, tripled in the machine-tools and accessories and screw-machine-products industries, doubled in the foundry and machine shops, nonferrous-metal products, and structural- and ornamental-work industries. In the shipbuilding industry the percentage of female wage earners increased from 2.7 percent to 28.4 percent, in other transportation equipment from 1.6 percent to 10.8 percent, in other machinery from 1.8 percent to 14.4 percent, and in smelting and refining of nonferrous metals from 0.9 percent to 10.9 percent.

In contrast, the increase in the proportion of women to total employment in the nondurable-goods group was only 2.9 percent between October 1942 and August 1944. In fact, numerous industries in this group showed declines in the percentage of women during this period.

The average earnings of women in all manufacturing industries were \$14.20 per week (or 42 percent) higher in August 1944 than in October 1942, whereas the corresponding advance for men was only \$9.90 (or 19 percent).

Wage and Hour Regulation

Puerto Rican Wage Orders Under Fair Labor Standards Act¹

15-and 24-Cent Rate in Leather-Goods Industry

WORKERS engaged in the manufacture of leather and fabric-covered baseballs, wallets, and leather novelties in Puerto Rico are to receive minimum hourly wages of 15 cents if engaged in hand-sewing operations, and 24 cents if in other operations, effective on October 30, 1944. The wage order, issued under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, applies to employees engaged in the production of goods for interstate commerce.

15-Cent Rate in Handicraft Art Novelty Industry

A minimum hourly wage of 15 cents became effective in the Puerto Rican handicraft art novelty industry on October 30, 1944, by order of the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor. Application extends to persons engaged in the production of handicraft art novelties for interstate commerce. This definition does not extend to the production of any article included in any division of the needlework industries in Puerto Rico.

15- to 27-cent Rate for Needlework

Workers in the needlework industry in Puerto Rico had their wages increased on January 1, 1945, by order of the Administrator. Minimum hourly rates ranging from 15 to 27 cents replaced the previous pay scales of from 12½ to 22½ cents an hour, as shown in the following statement.

	<i>Minimum hourly rate</i>	
	<i>Effective prior to Jan. 1, 1945</i>	<i>Effective Jan. 1, 1945</i>
Hand sewing operations:		
Cotton underwear and infants' underwear.....	12½	15
Gloves:		
Leather.....	18	22
Woven and knitted fabric.....	15	18
Handkerchief and household art linen.....	12½	15
Infants' wear.....	12½	15
Miscellaneous handwork.....	12½	15
Needlepoint and hand-hooked rugs.....	12½	15
Rayon underwear (except infants').....	12½	18
Silk underwear (except infants').....	15	18
Wearing apparel.....	20	24

¹ Data are from U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division, Press releases D-80, D-81, A-10, and A-11.

	<i>Minimum hourly rate</i>	<i>Effective prior to Jan. 1, 1945</i>	<i>Effective Jan. 1, 1945</i>
Other operations:			
Cotton underwear and infants' underwear	20	24	
Gloves:			
Leather	20	24	
Woven and knitted fabric	20	24	
Handkerchief and household art linen	20	24	
Infants' wear	20	24	
Miscellaneous handwork	20	24	
Needlepoint and hand-hooked rugs	20	24	
Rayon underwear (except infants')	20	27	
Silk underwear (except infants')	22½	27	
Wearing apparel	20	24	

It was also stipulated that all piece rates for home workers (except those engaged in the hand-rolling of handkerchief edges, with 10 or fewer stitches to the inch) should be raised on January 1, 1945, by the same percentage as effective for the applicable hourly minimum.¹ Studies conducted by the Federal Government indicated that, prior to adoption of the January 1, 1945, scale, the piece rate for the hand-rolling (French-rolling) process was too high in relation to the 12½-cent hourly minimum for hand-rolling requiring 10 or fewer stitches per inch. As the piece rate to which reference is made (4.24 cents per 48 inches) more nearly approximated the 15-cent hourly minimum effective on January 1, 1945, it was retained, subject to adjustments in accordance with the findings in future studies. For hand-rolling with more than 10 stitches per inch, the piece rate was raised by 20 percent to 5.09 cents per 48 inches.



General Wage Increase in Cuba²

COMPULSORY general wage increases were granted in Cuba by decree of August 19, 1944. Every person engaged in commercial, industrial, agricultural, or other activities requiring the employment of workers whose tasks were regulated by the labor legislation then in force (with certain exceptions cited below) was ordered to increase the remuneration of his personnel, whether this was computed on a time, piece-work, or commission basis. Wage earners receiving up to 3.00 pesos per day were to be granted an increase of 20 percent; those receiving more than 3.00 pesos and up to 4.00 pesos, an increase of 15 percent; and those receiving more than 4.00 pesos and up to 6.67 pesos, an increase of 10 percent. If, through application of the terms of the decree, any of the workers classified in either of the two upper wage groups should receive less remuneration than they would have received had they been included in the next lower group, their wages are to be increased to an amount equal to that to which they would have been entitled in the next lower group.

Groups exempted from the operation of the decree were the sugar industry and newspaper enterprises (which had been or were to be regulated by special legislation), maritime and port labor activities

¹ The piece rates were published in the Federal Register for December 30, 1944 (pp. 15140-15141).

² Data are from report of Charles H. Dicoté, commercial attaché, United States Embassy at Habana, August 31, 1944 (No. 7793), enclosing translation of decree No. 2631 of August 19, 1944.

(of which studies were under way¹), and clinics and mutual benefit associations (then being surveyed by the Ministry of Labor). Railway companies with a total track mileage of 300 kilometers or less were required to pay only 50 percent of the increases listed above.

The purpose of the decree was not only to bring about a rise in wages commensurate with the increase in the cost of living but also to effect an equalization of wages. Consequently, employers who had increased wage rates pursuant to a decree of April 29, 1944, and resolutions of the Minimum Wage Commission of July 7, 1944, were required to pay the increases granted to the lowest wage group only if the contractual wages in force on May 1, 1944, were lower than the newly set rates. Employers were considered to have complied with the new decree, if, on January 1, 1944, or thereafter, they had given increases equal to those stipulated above; and if increases greater than these had already been given, they were required to maintain them.

The increases granted on August 19 were to be applied in accordance with the plan worked out in the minimum-wage decree (No. 2982) of November 7, 1941, for paying employees engaged on a time, piece-work, or commission basis.

The Minister of Labor was authorized to enforce the decree and to issue pertinent resolutions. Penalties for failure to comply with the terms of the order were included.



Minimum-Wage Rates in Mexico, 1944 and 1945

MINIMUM wage rates in Mexico, fixed by special commissions in the various municipalities, for the 2 years 1944 and 1945, and approved by the Central Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration in 1944,² vary from 1 peso³ per day in 8 States, to 7 pesos in 39 municipalities of Tlaxcala (for skilled urban workers). For the previous biennium minimum wage rates varied from 0.75 peso in Chiapas to 5 pesos in the northern district of Lower California. For 1944-45, general minimum rates were established for all types of work in the States of Campeche and Jalisco and in the Territory of Quintana Roo, although these rates vary from one municipality or group of municipalities to another; this type of wage rate had been established in only Jalisco and Quintana Roo for the 2 preceding biennial periods. For the purposes of wage fixing for the 1944-45 period, the State of Oaxaca was divided into 3 geographical districts, and there was a reduction from 11 to 10 in the actual number of types of wages fixed.

In 3 municipalities of Colima the minimum wage in the salt works consists of a specified amount of money and a share in the salt. City workers in Tlaxcala, whether classed as skilled or not, have minimum cash rates with an additional 16 percent for the seventh day of the

¹ According to report of Charles H. Ducoté, United States Embassy, Havana, October 20, 1944, decree No. 3371 of September 29, 1944, extended the benefits of decree No. 2631 to port and maritime laborers under the jurisdiction of the Intelligence Commission of the Ports and to salaried employees of offices, docks, and wharves (in regard to the handling of general cargo except sugar).

² Data are from Trabajo y Previsión Social (Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Mexico, D. F.), February and March 1944; Diario Oficial (Mexico, D. F.), December 31, 1943; and Labor Conditions in Latin America, No. 16 (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Serial No. R. 1607). For background and analysis of rates for 1942 and 1943, see Labor Conditions in Latin America, No. 14 (BLS Serial No. R. 1523); for 1940 and 1941, Labor Conditions in Latin America, No. 9 (BLS Serial No. R. 1339); and for 1938 and 1939, Wages in Mexico, 1937 and 1938 (BLS Serial No. R. 897). For description of the Mexican plan of fixing minimum wages and the rates for 1936 and 1937, see Bulletin of the Pan American Union (Washington), July 1938.

³ Average exchange rate of Mexican peso (100 centavos), January-July 1944—about 20.6 cents.

week; throughout the State, bakery workers are to receive 15 percent of the value of the bread they make, plus 16 percent of the cash wage, as payment for the seventh day. The minimum wage fixed for field workers in the Federal District for 1944-45, as previously, is applicable to persons to whom the employer furnishes certain payments in kind which reduce their cost of living.

The accompanying table shows for the various political divisions of Mexico the number of types of work for which minimum wages were fixed for 1944 and 1945, with lowest and highest wage rates for each division, and comparable figures for 1942 and 1943.

Minimum Daily Wage Rates Fixed in Mexico for 1942 and 1943 and for 1944 and 1945

[Average exchange rate of peso, 1942 to July 1944, was about 20.6 cents]

Political division	1944 and 1945			1942 and 1943		
	Number of types of work for which wages were fixed	Minimum wage		Number of types of work for which wages were fixed	Minimum wage	
		Lowest	Highest		Lowest	Highest
Aguascalientes	5	Pesos 1.75	Pesos 2.50	5	Pesos 1.50	Pesos 2.00
Baja California, D. N.	2	5.25	6.50	2	4.00	5.00
Baja California, D. S.	8	1.75	3.50	8	1.75	3.10
Canpeche	1	2.50	3.50	3	2.00	3.00
Chiapas	4	1.00	3.15	4	.75	2.50
Chihuahua	3	1.95	4.70	3	1.50	3.50
Coahuila	2	1.20	2.50	2	1.20	2.75
Colima	13	1.75	3.50	13	1.15	2.00
Distrito Federal	22	1.65	2.50	22	1.65	2.50
Durango	4	1.00	3.00	5	1.00	3.00
Guanajuato	4	1.00	1.85	4	1.00	1.85
Guerrero	3	1.00	2.50	3	1.00	2.50
Hidalgo	4	1.00	2.25	3	1.00	2.25
Jalisco	1	1.65	3.00	1	1.10	2.00
Méjico	4	1.00	1.75	4	1.00	1.75
Michoacán	2	1.00	1.75	3	1.00	1.50
Morelos	3	1.50	2.90	3	1.00	2.00
Nayarit	5	1.80	3.27	5	1.20	2.25
Nuevo León	2	1.40	3.60	2	1.00	2.50
Oaxaca	10	1.25	2.50	11	1.25	2.50
Pochutla, Distrito	3	1.50	2.00	-	-	-
Tehuantepec, Distrito	4	1.25	2.50	-	-	-
Tuxtepec, Distrito	9	1.25	2.15	-	-	-
Puebla	2	1.30	2.10	2	1.30	2.10
Querétaro	3	1.40	2.22	2	1.00	1.50
Quintana Roo	1	4.17	4.17	1	3.00	3.00
San Luis Potosí	3	1.00	2.50	4	1.10	2.25
Sinaloa	12	1.75	3.50	10	1.25	3.00
Sonora	2	1.95	5.40	3	1.50	4.25
Tabasco	2	1.50	2.50	2	1.50	2.50
Tamaulipas	2	1.25	4.25	3	1.10	3.75
Tlaxcala	4	1.46	7.00	4	1.00	2.00
Veracruz	3	2.05	4.35	3	1.65	3.55
Yucatán	3	1.50	3.50	2	1.50	3.50
Zacatecas	2	1.50	2.50	2	1.00	1.75

¹ For laborers in the salt works in 3 municipalities a share of the salt is added.

² The minimum wage fixed for field workers in the Federal District is applicable to persons to whom the employer furnishes certain payments in kind.

³ 1942-43 rates continued, supplemented by compensation pay.

⁴ State divided into 3 districts for 1944-45 wage fixing; the total number of types of work for which wages are fixed in all 3 districts is 10.

⁵ For city workers, all rates given are to be increased 16½ percent.

⁶ For city workers, all rates given are to be increased 16 percent.

Rates for Various Industries and Regions

In 28 of the 32 political divisions of Mexico, special minimum wages were fixed for field work, to be effective in the biennium 1944-45, ranging from 1 peso in 8 States to 3 pesos in the southern district

of Lower California, 3.55 pesos in Sonora, and 5.75 pesos in the northern district of Lower California; these represented in most cases a substantial increase in average minimum agricultural wages as compared with 1942–43. In 21 political divisions special wage rates were designated for the period 1944–45 for city workers as such, ranging from 1 peso in Chiapas to 4.25 pesos in Tamaulipas, 5.40 pesos in Sonora, and 6.50 pesos in the northern district of Lower California; for 1942–43, there were 21 such minimum-wage rates established, ranging from 1 peso to 5 pesos; this also indicates a general increase in wages in cities. For 1944–45 as in 1942–43, separate wages were established in mining in 6 States; for 1944–45, they range from 1.85 pesos in Guanajuato to 3.50 pesos in Sinaloa, as compared with a range of 1.50 to 3.00 pesos in 1942–43; for the southern district of Lower California, where the highest minimum-wage rate in mining was established in 1940–41, mining has since that time been included in a group with other industries, the rate for the last biennium as for the present one having been fixed at 2.60 pesos. Workers listed as unskilled, unclassified, or undesignated in 4 States were assigned, for 1944–45, wages varying from 1.10 pesos in Guanajuato to 2.60 pesos in Morelos. Skilled or classified workers in 6 States were assigned rates for 1944–45 varying from 1.25 pesos in Guanajuato and Oaxaca to 2.50 pesos in Aguascalientes, 2.90 pesos in Morelos, and 7 pesos in Tlaxcala (with a supplement, for Tlaxcala, of 16 percent).

For the 1944–45 period, 6 States fixed rates in industry of from 1.25 pesos to 4.35 pesos, though in the southern district of Lower California industrial wages were included with other classes of work; 4 States, rates in commerce, of from 1.25 to 3.55 pesos (however, in the southern district of Lower California and Sinaloa, commerce was included with other types of work); and 2 States (Nayarit and Sinaloa), rates of from 2.00 to 2.90 pesos for fishing. In the southern district of Lower California, the minimum-wage rate fixed for laborers in the salt works, either classified separately or included with other groups, for 1944–45, was 3 pesos; other special rates were set for specified groups of workers. Cash wages for salt workers in 3 municipalities in Colima were set at from 1.75 to 2.25 pesos, to which was added a share of the salt. In Oaxaca specific rates set for cultivation of sugarcane ranged from 1.75 to 1.90 pesos, and for cultivation of pineapple, 2.15 pesos, as in 1942–43; other special groups, such as those engaged in the cultivation of various kinds of bananas, etc., were protected by special rates. Coffee workers in Chiapas, under the current schedule, are to receive 1.65 pesos, as compared with 1.30 pesos in 1942–43. Sawyers in Durango will receive 2 pesos, as in the preceding biennium. Wages for sugar-factory workers in Sinaloa were set at from 2 to 2.25 pesos, as compared with from 1.50 to 1.75 pesos in 1942–43; for masons and carpenters at 2.50, compared with 2 pesos for 1942–43; other rates were set for other types of work. With the exception of the localities or the classes of work indicated above, the rates cover workers in general.

Emergency Wage Increases

Wage increases in Mexico, ranging from 5 to 40 percent for agricultural workers, and from 5 to 50 percent for workers in general, were established by a decree of September 23, 1943, effective October

1, 1943, to operate in connection with the minimum-wage rates fixed in 1942 for 1942-43. No date of termination of this emergency increase in wages was specified, and it appears to have been provided for the duration of the present economic stringency; thus, the order of December 30, 1943, continuing the rates of 1942-43 for 1944-45 in the Federal District, stated that these rates should continue while the legislation of September 23, 1943, was in force, and gave the rates for the Federal District (as augmented by the emergency compensation) as 2.45 and 3.60 pesos or increases of 48 and 44 percent.



Minimum Salaries for Commercial Employees in Lima and Callao, Peru¹

MINIMUM salaries for employees of private enterprises in the metropolitan areas of Lima and Callao, Peru, were set by decree of July 20, 1944, effective August 1, with the purpose of enabling these employees to meet the rising cost of living. The minimum for male employees above 18 years of age was fixed at 100 soles² per month and for women above 18 years at 75 soles.

The decree provides that salaries of males and females "employed by half-day turns or fractions thereof," in centers working more than 8 hours daily, are to be regulated in proportion to the minimum rates set. It forbids the lowering of salaries which were above the minimum on the date of the decree. Employees replacing discharged employees are to receive remuneration equal to the minimum stipulated, regardless of age. Penalties are provided for in the case of employers who try to evade the decree by the use of dismissals, employment for 3 months or less, and similar arrangements.

The above provisions represent an attempt to equalize the salaries of the lowest-paid employees in private commercial employment and to regulate increases already granted by employers. The rates were determined on the basis of findings in a survey, previously undertaken, of the remuneration of all employees in Peru. Bonuses had already been granted to Government employees.

A commission consisting of one representative each from the Lima Chamber of Commerce and the National Industrial Society and two representatives from the Employees' Association of Peru, with the Director of Labor as chairman, was created to study salary improvements for employees of private companies not covered by the decree of July 20, 1944.

In compliance with recommendations of this commission, the Government enacted two decrees on October 14, 1944, one extending to salaried employees in specified Provinces minimum rates ranging from 70 to 90 soles per month for males and from 50 to 70 soles for females, and the other requiring the payment of bonuses on a sliding scale ranging from 35 percent on salaries below 100 soles to 15 percent on salaries over 400 soles on all salary schedules in effect since January 1, 1942.

¹ Data are from reports (No. 317) from Humberto Camilloni, July 22, 1944, and (No. 473) from Frederick W. Hinke, second secretary, October 24, 1944, United States Embassy at Lima.

² Average exchange rate (free) of sol as of September 23, 1944 = 15 cents.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Report of President's Committee on Cost of Living

IN A memorandum of October 22, 1943, the President directed the War Labor Board to appoint a committee of its members (labor, business, and Government) to look into the question of the cost of living and try "to make clear how the [Bureau of Labor Statistics] index figure is arrived at, whether any changes should be made in its component parts, or other improvements." With the President's approval, the War Labor Board appointed a committee of five: William H. Davis, Chairman; Horace B. Horton and George Batt, to represent industry; and George Meany and R. J. Thomas, to represent labor.

On November 17, 1944, the Chairman of the President's Committee submitted his report on changes in the cost of living since January 1941. This report was transmitted with a letter from the industry members of the Committee, comments on the report by Mr. Thomas, and a letter from Mr. Meany, giving "a special report to clarify certain points which the American Federation of Labor feels have not been sufficiently emphasized." The report, the comments, and the background against which the Chairman's conclusions are presented are summarized below.

Scope of Committee's Study

At its first meeting, on November 8, 1943, the Committee unanimously agreed, on motion of Mr. Meany, that it would investigate the following:

1. What is the cost of living compared to (a) January 1, 1941; (b) May 15, 1942; (c) September 15, 1942?
2. How is the index figure arrived at?
3. Should there be any changes made in the present method of securing or computing the figures? This is to include method of collecting data and choice of component parts of the index.
4. What, if any, concrete suggestions have we for improving the method of securing figures?

On January 25, 1944, Messrs. Thomas and Meany submitted a report which they recommended for adoption by the Committee as a whole. The report asserted that, by December 1943, the cost of living in the United States had risen at least 43.5 percent above the level of January 1941, whereas the BLS index figure had risen only 23.4 percent. The Meany-Thomas report was immediately submitted to the Bureau of Labor Statistics and to the Mills Committee of the American Statistical Association¹ for comment.

¹ See footnote 1, p. 109.

Background of Report

At the request of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living, A. F. Hinrichs, Acting Commissioner of Labor Statistics, on February 25, 1944, submitted a comprehensive statement on the Meany-Thomas report. He pointed out, in sum, that the data in that report did not support the claim of a 43.5-percent rise in the cost of living and that there was conclusive evidence of the error of such a claim.

On March 22, 1944, Mr. Davis received a communication from the Mills Committee saying:

The central criticisms contained in the Meany-Thomas report were before us when we prepared our report. The various tests we made were designed specifically to evaluate these criticisms. After study of the Meany-Thomas report and the Bureau of Labor Statistics' reply thereto, we reaffirm the major conclusions of our report of October 10th, 1943.

The discrepancy of 20 percentage points between the figures of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and of the Meany-Thomas report represented so large a difference that the Chairman thought the President's Committee should not attempt to evaluate it without the aid of technical experts. He therefore, on March 1, 1944, asked Dr. Wesley C. Mitchell, Dr. Simon N. Kuznets, and Dr. Margaret G. Reid to serve as a technical committee, with Dr. Mitchell as chairman.² The technical committee was requested to examine the Meany-Thomas report, the Bureau's reply, and all other pertinent data, and present an independent opinion; its report was submitted on June 15, 1944.

In the same month Mr. Thomas filed with the President's Committee a document (*Living Costs in World War II*) published by Philip Murray and himself, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics prepared, at the request of Mr. Davis, a joint analysis of changes in the BLS cost-of-living index and the BAE index of prices paid by farmers for articles used for family living. The BLS-BAE analysis showed that the two indexes, "being unlike in purpose and in the articles represented, are unlike in construction and items covered. It follows that the two indexes should not be expected to be at the same level."

The industry members of the President's Committee had, in the interval, asked the National Industrial Conference Board to analyze the Meany-Thomas report, and its report had been filed with the Committee in April 1944.

Findings of Chairman's Report

SPECIFIC CRITICISMS OF BLS INDEX

The Chairman's report relied on the analysis by the Mitchell Committee for an evaluation of the differences between the changes shown

¹ At the request of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, through the Secretary of Labor, Dr. E. A. Goldenweiser, then president of the American Statistical Association, had appointed a committee in May 1943, to review and appraise the cost-of-living index. This committee, consisting of Frederick C. Mills (chairman), E. Wight Bakke, Reavis Cox, Margaret C. Reid, Theodore W. Schultz, and Samuel Stratton, had previously reported, concluding: "First, that within the limitations established for it, the cost-of-living index provides a trustworthy measure of changes in prices paid by consumers for goods and services. Second, that many of the difficulties and doubts which have arisen concerning the index have their origins in attempts to use it uncritically for purposes to which it is not adapted."

² Dr. Wesley C. Mitchell is Director of Research of the National Bureau of Economic Research; Dr. Simon N. Kuznets is Professor of Economics and Statistics at the University of Pennsylvania and at that time was Director of the Bureau of Planning and Statistics of the War Production Board; and Dr. Margaret G. Reid, is Professor of Economics at Iowa State College and at the time was working with the Division of Statistical Standards of the Bureau of the Budget.

by the BLS index and the Meany-Thomas report. It quoted from the Mitchell report as follows:

The detailed evidence presented in Part III confirms confidence in the accuracy and representativeness of the price changes shown by the BLS index. On the other hand, the evidence submitted by the Meany-Thomas report in support of these charges does not withstand critical examination.

Because we are convinced that some estimates of the greater expenses incurred because of poorer quality are much too high we are willing to contribute our guess. We believe that family expenditures in general have not been pushed up, by deterioration of qualities and price increases for the full range of qualities, more than two or three points beyond the increase indicated by the BLS index. In making this guess, we isolated the items for which reduced quality tends to force the purchase of increased quantity. We took into account the importance of these goods in the total index and the BLS method of pricing, and studied market data on both quality and quantity. And we considered the probable effect of the BLS's failure to cover the entire range of qualities.

Where the evidence is inconclusive, the committee has attempted an informed guess. All guesses are based on assumptions that have been examined and stated as systematically as has been possible, within the time available to us. The committee has seen fit to include those guesses because it believes that certain other guesses have greatly exaggerated the shortcomings of the index.

If the BLS had obtained strictly accurate reports of all the prices it tries to collect; if it had caught the change in average prices caused by their reduction in bargain sales; if it had priced the qualities bought by families with very low income and the qualities bought by the most prosperous of wage earners as well as those in the middle groups; and if it had made full allowance for increases in expenditures forced on families by quality deterioration that can be offset by buying more goods, its index would probably not be higher than it is now by more than three to four points.

The report summarized the additions to the BLS index, estimated for the Meany-Thomas report and the Mitchell report, as follows:

Analysis of differences between the increases in prices and rents charged large-city workers, as shown by the Bureau of Labor Statistics index and the estimates of the Meany-Thomas report and the Mitchell Committee:

	Increase (percentage points in total index) over BLS index as estimated by—	
	Meany- Thomas report	Mitchell Committee report
Reasons given for differences:		
Methods of pricing (greater increases in food not priced for index than in foods priced, and in rents of dwellings not priced than in rents of dwellings priced)....	7.22	0.30
Disappearance of cheaper consumption items.....	3.62	0.06-.11
Decline in special sales.....	1.35	.44
Increase in underreporting of prices actually charged..	.98	.24-.48
	13.17	1.04-1.33
Quality deterioration.....	6.93	1.46-2.69
Total.....	20.10	2.50-4.02

ANSWER TO BASIC QUESTION

The Chairman's report pointed out, in answer to the basic question the Committee originally agreed to investigate, i. e., the accuracy of the Bureau's index—

(1) The accuracy of the BLS index figures for what they are intended to measure is confirmed. They are entitled to the good reputation they have long enjoyed. They constitute a competent measure of price changes for goods customarily purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers living in large cities. They provide from month to month an acceptable approximation to changes in the cost of living for urban workers. They are good basic figures for use in the formulation of fiscal and other governmental policies and for observing the effects of such policies.

(2) Under the exceptional market conditions which exist in wartime, and so long as we have a seller's market, allowance should be made for a hidden increase in the cost of living of probably as much as 3 and certainly not more than 4 percentage points, due to quality deterioration, disappearance of cheaper goods, decrease of special sales, and increases in underreporting of prices actually charged. Unlike the price changes recorded by the BLS, these items of temporary disadvantage of the buyer in a seller's market are not directly measureable but they have been soundly estimated by the Mitchell Committee.

(3) If the index is to be used to represent changes in the cost of living of urban workers in small as well as large cities there should be an upward adjustment of the index figures by not more than one-half of a percentage point. This item is estimated from the results of data from only a few small cities. It, also, reflects wartime conditions. It should be replaced by a figure based on direct observation when the BLS has extended its pricing to a more adequate coverage of small cities.

For all components combined, the BLS cost-of-living index rose approximately 15 percent from January 15, 1941, to May 15, 1942. It rose about 2 percent more from May 15 to September 15, 1942. It continued to rise at about the same rate to April 15, 1943, when it amounted to an increase of about 23 percent. There was some minor fluctuation but no further significant rise in the 12 months from April 15, 1943, to April 15, 1944. The increase up to December 15, 1943, was approximately 23 percent. It was 25.5 percent on September 15, 1944.

To this figure, 25.5 percent, should be added the Mitchell Committee estimate of 3 to 4 percentage points for the hidden increases in a seller's market, and $\frac{1}{2}$ percentage point if the index is to be used to represent changes in the cost of living of urban workers in small as well as large cities.

The final figure for the over-all increase in the cost of living from January 1941 to September 1944 would thus be found to be 29 to 30 percent.

ANSWER TO SUBSIDIARY QUESTIONS

The report deals briefly with the second question, "How is the index figure arrived at?" and refers those interested in the details to the Description of the Cost-of-Living Index of the BLS prepared by the Bureau, and to Part II of the Mitchell report.

Regarding the Bureau's methods of collection and computation of data for the index, the report reached the following conclusions:

No substantial criticism of the BLS methods has survived the searching studies presented to this committee. Certain minor ways in which the BLS methods might be improved if it had more ample funds are discussed below. * * *

I agree wholly with the Mitchell Committee that the methods applied by the committee to estimate the hidden increase in living costs in a seller's market are not suitable for use in preparing an official index and should not be adopted by the BLS.

The only concrete suggestion made by the Mitchell Committee is that the BLS index might well be given another name. I would approve of that suggestion if the new name could emphasize the fact that the BLS index measures changes in the total cost of a fixed standard of living, not changes in total family expenditures due to changed standards of living.

But something might be done to improve the index. A more extensive sample of small cities would give greater assurance that price was being measured for wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in general. The pricing of a somewhat wider range of qualities for some items might make it possible to get a better measure of average price change for these groups of families, within the limitations of the fact that as the number of qualities priced increases so does the difficulty in identifying the quality. Occasional checks might be made of the importance of sales at mark-downs and special discounts not included in the pricing. There is no evidence that these affect the index much, so there would be a question whether the increased accuracy of the index would be worth the additional costs. An expenditure survey would be valuable in bringing expenditure weights in line with present spending patterns.

On the matter of finding identical qualities and minimizing quality deterioration of items in the index, two changes seem to have merit: (i) To have more information on labels, and (ii) to have quality floors for items for which serviceability is

important and to allocate materials to manufacturers in such a way that adequate supplies of these are available in the market. But effecting these changes is outside the province of the BLS.

These suggestions have all been considered by the BLS. Recommendations bearing on them appear in the report of the A. S. A. Committee and the BLS has testified before Congressional Committees concerning the need for and possible ways of providing more adequate data. The controversy which has given rise to the present report indicates their significance.

In the report of the Mills Committee of the American Statistical Association, at pages 403 to 405 inclusive, a number of recommendations were made to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. We are informed that the Bureau has given careful consideration to these recommendations. The Mills Committee recommendations are more specific than the coverage of the above-quoted extracts from the Mitchell Committee report, but they point in the same direction.

We note particularly that both the Mitchell Committee and the Mills Committee recommend further study by the BLS of family expenditures and spending patterns, and the Mills Committee advises (p. 404, Journal of the American Statistical Association, December 1943):

"That frequent small-sample studies of family expenditures and incomes be conducted, and that once in 5 years a comprehensive study be made to provide data on local differences in income and consumption habits among occupational groups in the United States. Furthermore, that adequate analyses and integration of these studies and existing data be planned and regularly provided for. Since these kinds of studies provide the weights which reflect the changes in consumption habits and are important in keeping the cost-of-living indexes in line with current economic development, it is essential that they be made periodically."

These suggested improvements in the methods and scope of the BLS work would involve, of course, additional expense and therefore additional budget appropriations. It is my opinion that the suggestions should be given careful consideration by all of the Government agencies involved and that action upon them should be left to recommendations of the BLS, review by the Bureau of the Budget, and action by the Congress.

WARTIME CHANGES IN MANNER OF LIVING, AND SOME THINGS THAT BLS INDEX DOES NOT DO

The report explained in some detail that the BLS index measures changes in retail prices and rents charged city workers, in terms of a standard market basket, and does not measure changes in total family expenditures. There have been very great changes in family expenditures since early 1941, not only because prices are higher but also because of rising incomes, increased taxation, scarcity of durable and certain other consumer goods, very considerable migration to war centers, and the entrance of some 11,000,000 men into the armed forces.

It is emphasized that the Bureau never has tried, and does not now try, to measure the cost of living in the sense of changes in the total amount of family expenditures. As to this the report stated:

As a matter of fact it seems to me highly important, particularly from the standpoint of those who have to battle for better standards of living in America, that it should be generally understood that the thing measured by the BLS index is the change from time to time in the aggregate cost of a fixed typical family market basket, so that urban workers may know whether their wage dollar has kept its real value in the market. Their interest is in how much goods and services a given amount in the pay envelope will buy. If prices go down but the workers, through their unions, manage to keep wages stable, then they have won an increase in real wages and can improve their standard of living. If prices are held steady and wages go up, again an improved standard of living is made possible. If prices go up, then an equivalent increase in wages must be achieved if the workers' standard of living is to be maintained. If the BLS permitted changes in income to change its index, these people would have no way to measure either the gains or the losses in the value of the dollars for which they work. With a great falling off of real income, and the inevitable reduction of total family expenditure, they might be asked to believe that the "cost of living" had declined as their incomes fell off and that they were really as well off as before.

STATEMENTS FROM OTHER MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

The industry members of the President's Committee concurred in the main with the general conclusions of the Chairman. Their letter, commenting on the application of the index to wage *rates*, pointed out—

Although minor technical inadequacies, due mainly to wartime conditions, have developed in the BLS cost-of-living index, their aggregate significance is relatively unimportant. While a rough "guess" of their magnitude is possible from time to time, competent technicians, such as those on the Mills Committee and the Mitchell Committee, agree that dependable adjustments cannot be made in the BLS index to compensate for these factors. The Mitchell report stated "We have little advice to offer for improvement in the methods used by the BLS." Our studies confirm this conclusion.

The letters from R. J. Thomas of the C. I. O. and George Meany of the A. F. of L. stated that wartime change in the manner of living should be taken into account in fixing wage rates.

Mr. Thomas said that "there is substantial agreement among all concerned [that] retail prices have risen at least 29 to 30 percent between January 1941 and September 1944. * * * Our studies indicate that the conclusion of the Mitchell Committee is most conservative. We believe that the factors of quality deterioration, disappearance of cheaper items, decline in special sales, and increase in underreporting of prices actually charged—the factors which, according to the Mitchell Committee, result in an understatement of from 3.5 to 4.5 percentage points—account for a much larger error. The conclusion of the Mitchell Committee must be regarded as a minimum." The letter pointed out that in addition to increased expenditures resulting from higher prices, workers' families have incurred a great variety of extra expenditures because of wartime conditions—migration to war production centers, maintenance of homes in two places, wives working in factories, and increased eating away from home—which are not covered by a price index. It concluded that "the BLS index cannot appropriately be used for wage-adjustment purposes. It is a measure of price changes only; it does not measure the full rise in living costs"—which the Congress of Industrial Organizations places at 44.4 percent from January 1941 to March 1944.

Mr. Meany's letter also stressed the difference between a price index and an index of changes in the necessary expenditures of the workers, and said:

If the index does not measure these things (changes in the manner of living, eating away from home, the cost of forced purchases in higher-priced stores because of transportation difficulties, increased living costs of migrants), then it does not measure cost of living. Clearly then the index is not and cannot be made a satisfactory indicator of increases in costs of living necessary to adjust wages so that the welfare of the workers can be stabilized.

The letter noted that the section of the "Little Steel" formula in regard to the correction of substandards of the living has not been carried out, and that "real" wage rates in some trades were lower in 1943 than in 1940. On the basis of the Mitchell Committee's estimate of the increase in living costs, the letter gave figures on "real" wages in cents per hour which show lower figures in 1943 than in 1940 for the building and printing trades, truck drivers, bakery and street-railway workers. It concluded by recommending that the National War Labor Board request the President to issue an Executive order

that would allow employers and workers "by mutual agreement to increase wage rates up to the proposed 30 percent over January 1941," and in cases of dispute to permit the Board "to increase wage rates up to the 30 percent over January 1941, depending on the particular circumstances found to exist in each case."



Cost of Living in Large Cities, November 1944

AVERAGE prices of living essentials showed little change between mid-October and mid-November, 1944. The family food bill rose about a tenth of 1 percent and there were scattered increases in prices of clothing and housefurnishings as the demand for many lower-priced articles continued to exceed available supplies. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of living costs of moderate-income city families rose 0.1 percent for the month and stood at 126.5 percent of the 1935-39 average, 1.9 percent above the level of November 1943.

Seasonal increases in prices of eggs, green beans, and apples, and higher prices for fresh and frozen fish offset the usual early winter price declines for oranges, lettuce, and spinach. Prices for onions, white potatoes and sweet potatoes decreased contraseasonally. Although the supply of most staple foods was adequate, supplies of butter were again quite limited, and pork, cheese, canned fruit, and salmon continued to be scarce. Larger quantities of better grades of beef were available in November than in October, and sugar was more readily obtainable.

Average prices of clothing and housefurnishings advanced slightly (0.1 percent) during the month. Small increases in men's overalls and work shirts occurred in a number of cities. Disappearance of lower-priced lines raised the average cost of cotton house dresses, and supplies of cotton clothing in general continued to be extremely limited.

Average gas prices in New York City advanced in November as the usual winter rate increase went into effect. Some coke prices advanced slightly, while dealers stretched civilian supplies by adding higher-priced types of coke to less-expensive qualities.

Most of the miscellaneous goods and services remained stable in price. Rents were not surveyed in November.

In connection with the data shown in the following tables it should be borne in mind that the Bureau of Labor Statistics index indicates average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents, and services bought by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. The items covered represented 70 percent of the expenditures of families who had incomes ranging from \$1,250 to \$2,000 in 1934-36.

The index does not show the full wartime effect on the cost of living of such factors as lowered quality, disappearance of low-priced goods, and forced changes in housing and eating away from home. It does not measure changes in *total* "living costs"—that is, *in the total amount families spend for living*. Income taxes and bond subscriptions are not included.¹

¹ For a description of the methods used in computing the index, see Description of the Cost-of-Living Index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. An appraisal of the factors enumerated above was given in the report of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living, November 17, 1944.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, Nov. 15, 1944, and Earlier Dates

Date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100.0) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1939: Aug. 15.	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: Jan. 15.	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
1942: May 15.	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
Sept. 15.	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
1943: Nov. 15.	124.2	137.3	133.5	108.0	107.9	126.9	117.7
1944: Oct. 15.	126.4	136.4	141.7	(²)	109.8	141.3	122.7
Nov. 15.	126.5	136.5	141.8	(²)	109.9	141.4	122.7

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.² Rents not surveyed in this month.TABLE 2.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods

Date	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent ²	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Oct. 15, 1944, to Nov. 15, 1944	+0.1	+0.1	+0.1	(³)	+0.1	+0.1	0
Nov. 15, 1943, to Nov. 15, 1944	+1.9	-6	+6.2	+0.2	+1.9	+11.4	+4.2
Sept. 15, 1942, to Nov. 15, 1944	+7.4	+7.8	+12.7	+2	+3.5	+14.4	+10.1
May 15, 1942, to Nov. 15, 1944	+9.1	+12.3	+12.4	-1.5	+4.8	+15.7	+10.6
Jan. 15, 1941, to Nov. 15, 1944	+25.5	+39.6	+40.8	+3.0	+9.0	+41.3	+20.4
Aug. 15, 1939, to Nov. 15, 1944	+28.3	+46.0	+41.4	+3.7	+12.7	+40.6	+22.2

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.² Changes through Sept. 15, 1944.³ Rents not surveyed in this month.TABLE 3.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Specified Periods, by Cities

City	Nov. 15, 1943, to Nov. 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to Nov. 15, 1944	Jan. 1, 1941, to Nov. 15, 1944	May 15, 1942, to Nov. 15, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to Nov. 15, 1944
Average: Large cities	+1.9	+28.3	+25.5	+9.1	+7.4
New England: Boston	+1.7	+26.7	+24.1	+8.5	+5.9
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	+.6	+28.5	+24.2	+5.1	+5.1
New York	+1.9	+28.5	+25.9	+12.3	+9.4
Philadelphia	+1.5	+27.7	+25.9	+8.9	+6.8
Pittsburgh	+1.4	+28.9	+25.3	+9.5	+7.9
East North Central:					
Chicago	+2.4	+27.5	+24.3	+8.0	+7.2
Cincinnati	+1.9	+29.5	+26.5	+8.7	+6.8
Cleveland	+1.7	+30.4	+27.8	+9.8	+9.0
Detroit	+1.9	+28.9	+25.7	+6.9	+7.3
West North Central:					
Kansas City	+1.9	+26.0	+26.2	+8.9	+8.3
Minneapolis	+.9	+23.2	+20.6	+6.0	+5.1
St. Louis	+1.6	+27.3	+23.7	+8.0	+7.1
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore	-3.1	+30.8	+28.2	+9.2	+7.8
Savannah	+1.9	+35.3	+32.5	+11.2	+10.1
Washington, D. C.	+1.6	+27.2	+25.5	+9.3	+7.1
East South Central: Birmingham	+2.4	+32.4	+28.3	+9.9	+9.8
West South Central: Houston	+.6	+22.9	+21.4	+6.5	+4.9
Mountain: Denver	+2.3	+27.1	+25.3	+8.4	+6.1
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	+1.6	+28.2	+25.7	+9.1	+5.8
San Francisco	+3.1	+32.3	+29.1	+11.7	+8.7
Seattle	+1.4	+30.0	+27.7	+7.6	+6.3

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

TABLE 4.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living, Oct. 15 to Nov. 15, 1944, by Cities

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House- furnishings	Miscel- laneous
Average: Large cities	² +0.1	³ +0.1	⁴ +0.1	⁵ +0.1	⁶ +0.1	⁷ 0
New England: Boston	+ .2	+ .5	0	+ .2	0	0
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	- .3	- 1.0	- .1	0	+ .1	0
New York	+ .1	+ .1	0	+ .2	- .1	0
Philadelphia	- .1	- .1	0	+ .1	0	0
Pittsburgh	- .5	- 1.4	0	0	+ .1	0
East North Central:						
Chicago	0	0	+ .1	0	0	0
Cincinnati	+ .3	+ .7	+ .1	0	0	0
Cleveland	+ .2	+ .5	+ .1	0	+ .1	0
Detroit	- .2	- .4	0	0	0	0
West North Central:						
Kansas City	+ .2	+ .5	+ .1	0	+ .1	0
Minneapolis	- .1	- .3	+ .1	0	0	0
St. Louis	+ .2	+ .4	0	0	0	+ .6
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	+ .7	+ 1.6	0	+ .1	0	0
Savannah	- .1	- .2	+ .1	0	0	0
Washington, D. C.	+ .5	+ 1.5	0	0	0	0
East South Central: Birmingham	+ .5	+ 1.3	0	0	0	0
West South Central: Houston	- .6	- 1.5	+ .1	0	0	0
Mountain: Denver	+ .1	+ .1	+ .1	0	0	0
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	+ .1	+ .2	+ .1	0	0	0
San Francisco	+ .4	+ .8	+ .2	0	0	0
Seattle	- .1	- .4	+ .1	0	+ 2.1	0

¹ Based on indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

² Rents not surveyed in this month.

³ Based on prices for 56 cities collected on the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.

⁴ Based on data for 21 cities.

⁵ Based on data for 34 cities.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, 1935 to November 1944

Year and month	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, elec- tricity, and ice	House- furnishings	Miscel- laneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.8
1944:							
Jan. 15	124.2	136.1	134.7	108.1	109.5	128.3	118.4
Feb. 15	123.8	134.5	135.2	108.1	110.3	128.7	118.7
Mar. 15	123.8	134.1	136.7	108.1	109.9	129.0	119.1
Apr. 15	124.6	134.6	137.1	108.1	109.9	132.9	120.9
May 15	125.1	135.5	137.4	108.1	109.8	135.0	121.3
June 15	125.4	135.7	138.0	108.1	109.6	138.4	121.7
July 15	126.1	137.4	138.3	² 108.2	² 109.7	² 138.7	² 122.0
Aug. 15	² 126.4	137.7	² 139.4	² 108.2	109.8	² 139.3	² 122.3
Sept. 15	126.5	137.0	141.4	² 108.2	109.8	140.7	122.4
Oct. 15	126.4	136.4	141.7	(*)	109.8	141.3	122.7
Nov. 15	126.5	136.5	141.8	(*)	109.9	141.4	122.7

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Revised.

³ Based on rents in 20 large cities in September 1944 and assuming no change in rents in cities not surveyed in September.

⁴ Rents not surveyed in this month.

Retail Prices of Food in October 1944

PERCENTAGE changes in retail food costs on October 17, 1944, as compared with costs in the previous month and in October 1943, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Feed in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods*

Commodity group	Sept. 12, 1944, to Oct. 17, 1944	Oct. 19, 1943, to Oct. 17, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to Oct. 17, 1944	Jan. 14, 1941, to Oct. 17, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to Oct. 17, 1944
All foods	-0.4	-1.3	+7.7	+39.5	+45.9
Cereals and bakery products	0	+3	+3.0	+14.4	+16.3
Meats	+3	-9	-9	+28.0	+35.2
Beef and veal	-1	-1.4	-6.2	+8.0	+18.7
Pork	0	-1.1	-9.5	+30.3	+27.5
Lamb	+1	-1	+7	+36.5	+36.3
Chickens	+4	+2.0	+12.1	+54.2	+58.5
Fish, fresh and canned	+2.7	-4.9	+22.4	+73.4	+106.6
Dairy products	0	+1	+4.6	+27.1	+43.5
Eggs	+6.5	-5.8	+15.3	+83.8	+97.4
Fruits and vegetables	-4.1	-2.1	+25.6	+74.6	+76.3
Fresh	-5.0	-2.6	+30.8	+82.4	+83.6
Canned	+2	-2	+4.8	+41.9	+41.6
Dried	+2	+2.6	+15.6	+66.4	+83.5
Beverages	0	-6	+4	+36.7	+31.9
Fats and oils	+1	-2.7	+2.0	+53.3	+45.7
Sugar and sweets	+1	-3	-5	+32.6	+32.2

¹ The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

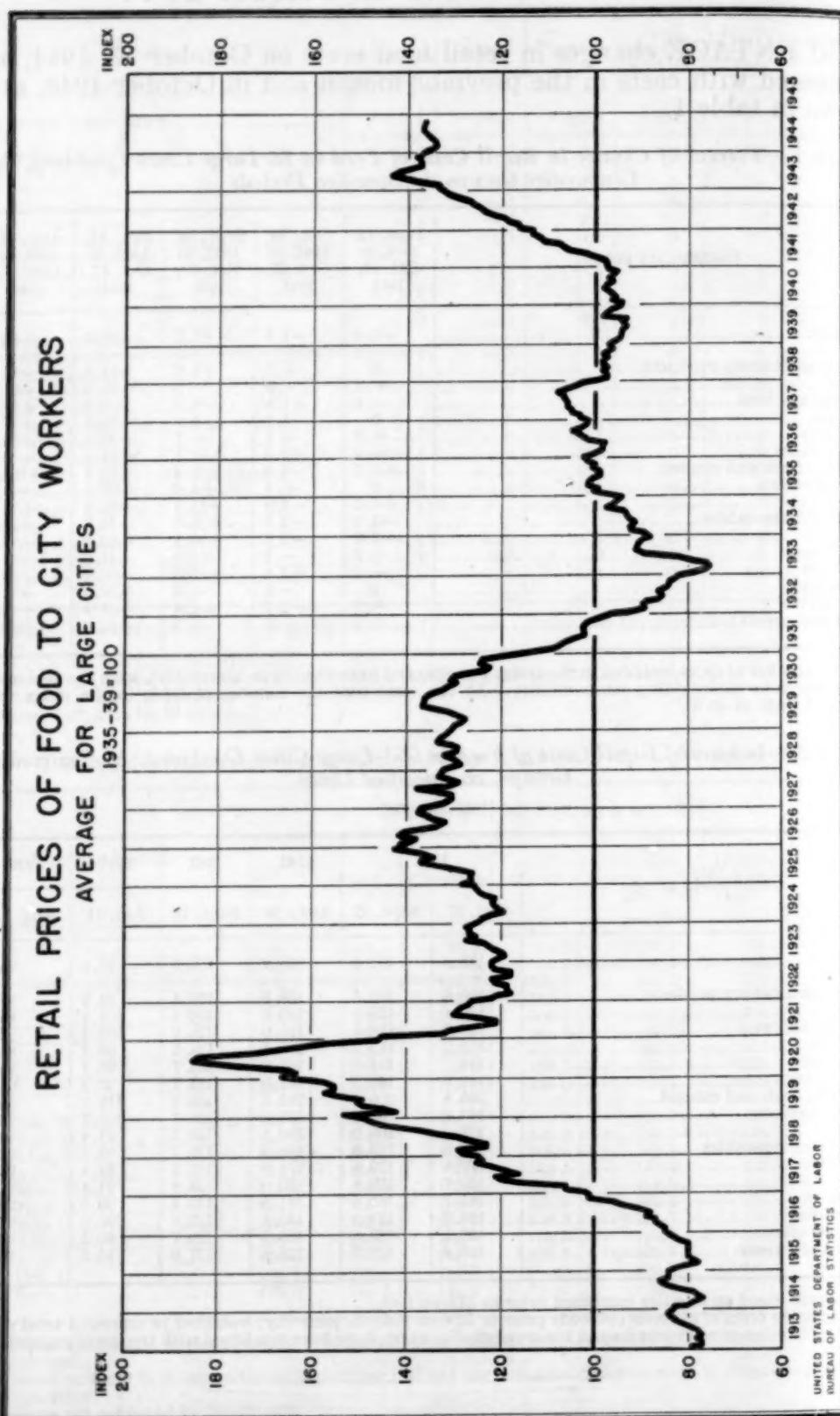
TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56¹ Large Cities Combined,² by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1944		1943	1942	1941	1939
	Oct. 17	Sept. 12	Oct. 19	Sept. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	136.4	137.0	138.2	126.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	108.6	108.6	108.3	105.4	94.9	93.4
Meats	129.4	129.0	130.6	130.6	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	118.2	118.3	119.9	126.0	109.4	99.6
Pork	112.2	112.2	113.5	124.0	86.1	88.0
Lamb	134.7	134.6	134.9	133.7	98.7	98.8
Chickens	149.9	149.3	147.0	133.7	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	205.8	200.4	216.5	168.2	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	133.6	133.6	133.5	127.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs	179.0	168.0	190.1	155.2	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	162.9	169.9	166.4	129.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh	170.4	179.4	174.9	130.3	93.4	92.8
Canned	129.7	129.4	130.0	123.8	91.4	91.6
Dried	165.7	165.3	161.5	143.4	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.3	124.3	125.1	123.8	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	123.1	123.0	126.5	120.7	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.4	126.3	126.8	127.0	95.3	95.6

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

² Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.



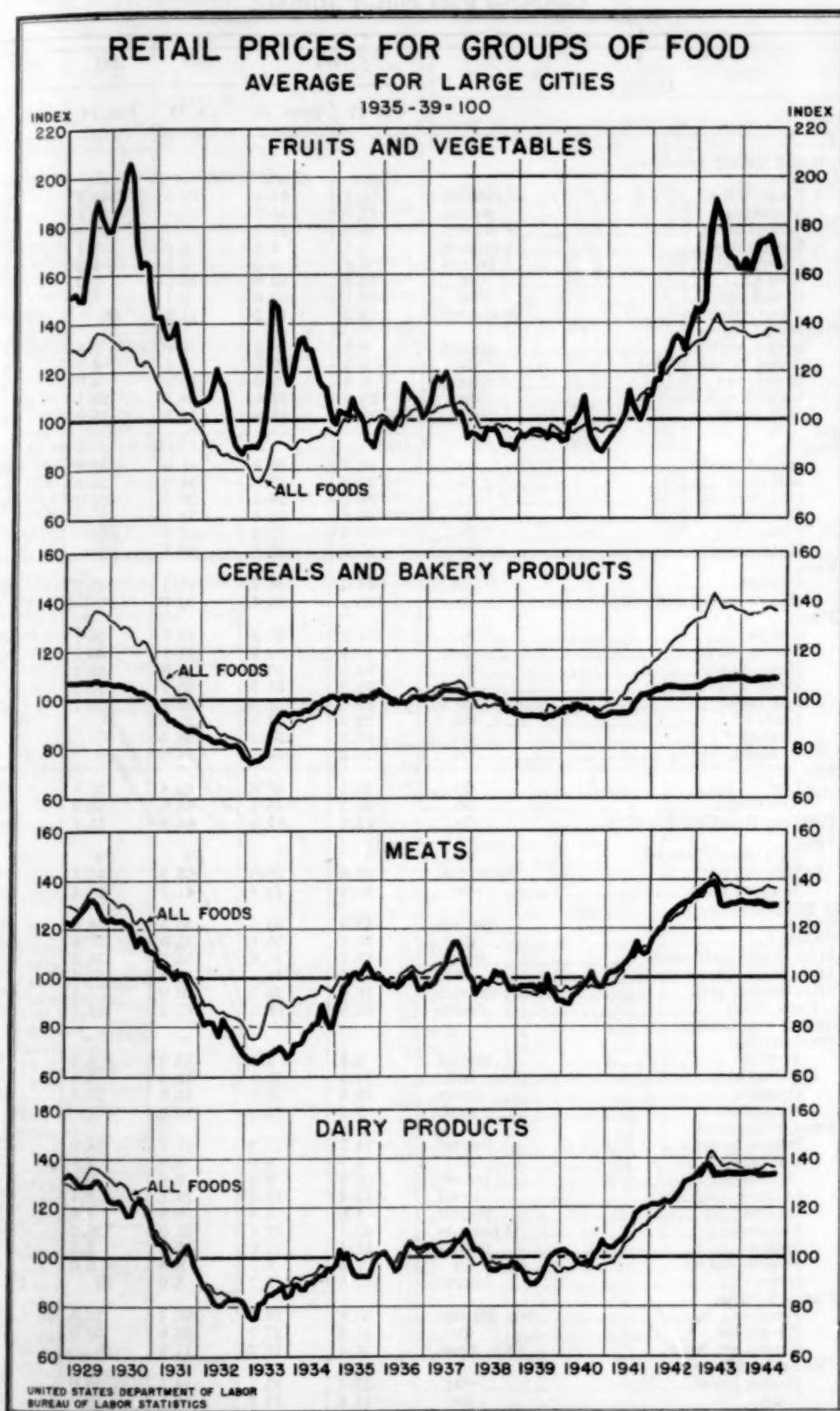


TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ October 1944, Compared With Earlier Months*

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Oct. 17	Sept. 12	Oct. 19	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:					
Cereals:					
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	64.1	64.4	62.6	41.4
Macaroni	pound	15.7	15.7	15.6	13.8
Wheat cereal ²	28 ounces	23.2	23.2	23.4	23.5
Corn flakes	.8 ounces	6.5	6.5	6.6	7.1
Corn meal	pound	6.4	6.3	5.9	4.2
Rice ²	do	12.8	12.8	12.7	7.9
Rolled oats	do	10.1	10.0	8.7	7.1
Flour, pancake ²	20 ounces	12.2	12.2	11.6	(*)
Bakery products:					
Bread, white	pound	8.8	8.8	8.9	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.6	9.6	9.8	8.7
Bread, rye	do	9.9	9.9	10.1	9.0
Vanilla cookies	do	28.2	27.8	28.5	25.1
Soda crackers	do	18.9	18.9	18.5	15.0
Meats:					
Beef:					
Round steak	do	40.7	40.9	41.9	38.6
Rib roast	do	33.0	32.9	34.0	31.5
Chuck roast	do	28.4	28.5	29.2	25.2
Stew meat ²	do	30.6	30.6	31.1	(*)
Liver	do	37.3	37.2	37.0	(*)
Hamburger	do	27.5	27.5	28.7	(*)
Veal:					
Cutlets	do	44.6	44.7	46.3	45.2
Roast, boned and rolled ²	do	35.9	35.4	36.7	(*)
Pork:					
Chops	do	37.2	37.3	37.7	29.1
Bacon, sliced	do	40.9	40.9	41.8	30.1
Ham, sliced	do	50.0	50.3	51.8	45.1
Ham, whole	do	35.2	35.3	35.7	26.2
Salt pork	do	22.3	22.1	22.7	16.7
Liver ²	do	22.0	21.9	22.2	(*)
Sausage ²	do	38.5	38.2	38.3	(*)
Bologna, big ²	do	34.2	34.1	34.6	(*)
Lamb:					
Leg	do	39.9	39.9	40.4	27.8
Rib chops	do	45.2	45.1	45.8	35.0
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	44.9	44.6	44.1	31.1
Fish:					
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	23.0	22.9	23.5	15.7
Salmon, red ²	do	40.9	40.4	41.3	26.4
Dairy products:					
Butter	pound	49.9	50.0	50.5	38.0
Cheese	do	36.1	36.1	35.9	27.0
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	15.6	15.6	15.5	13.0
Milk, fresh (store)	do	14.5	14.5	14.4	11.9
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	10.0	10.0	10.0	7.1
Eggs: Eggs, fresh	dozen	63.5	59.6	67.2	34.9
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh fruits:					
Apples	pound	9.8	9.7	10.6	5.2
Bananas	do	11.1	11.1	12.3	6.6
Oranges	dozen	49.6	50.6	51.8	27.3
Grapefruit ²	each	9.2	11.0	10.0	(*)
Fresh vegetables:					
Beans, green	pound	14.7	17.2	17.7	14.0
Cabbage	do	4.7	5.0	4.6	3.4
Carrots	bunch	8.9	8.9	9.6	6.0
Lettuce	head	12.2	12.2	13.1	8.4
Onions	pound	4.8	5.5	6.8	3.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	67.1	72.4	61.0	29.2
Spinach	pound	11.4	12.9	10.1	7.3
Sweetpotatoes	do	7.1	8.7	8.3	5.0
Beets ²	bunch	7.6	7.7	8.0	(*)
Canned fruits:					
Peaches	No. 2½ can	27.8	28.0	26.4	16.5
Pineapple	do	27.5	27.3	27.9	20.9
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	14.4	14.3	14.4	(*)
Canned vegetables:					
Beans, green	do	13.1	13.1	14.5	10.0
Corn	do	14.6	14.5	14.1	10.7
Peas	do	13.3	13.2	14.5	13.2
Tomatoes	do	12.0	12.0	12.4	8.4
Soup, vegetable ²	11-oz. can	13.4	13.4	12.7	(*)
Dried fruits: Prunes	pound	17.0	17.3	16.6	9.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ October 1944, Compared With Earlier Months—Continued

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Oct. 17	Sept. 12	Oct. 19	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.					
Dried vegetables:					
Navy beans.....	pound.....	10.9	10.9	10.3	6.5
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle ²	ounce.....	3.7	3.6	3.7	(*)
Beverages:					
Coffee.....	pound.....	30.3	30.3	29.9	20.7
Tea.....	1/4 pound.....	23.9	23.9	23.4	17.6
Cocoa ³	1/2 pound.....	10.4	10.4	9.2	9.1
Fats and oils:					
Lard.....	pound.....	18.7	18.7	18.9	9.9
Shortening other than lard—					
In cartons.....	do.....	20.2	20.2	20.1	11.3
In other containers.....	do.....	24.8	24.8	24.9	18.3
Salad dressing.....	pint.....	25.7	25.8	25.5	20.1
Oleomargarine.....	pound.....	24.1	24.0	24.0	15.6
Peanut butter.....	do.....	28.4	28.4	33.4	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad ⁴	pint.....	30.7	30.6	30.6	(*)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar.....	pound.....	6.7	6.7	6.8	5.1
Corn syrup.....	24 ounces.....	15.8	15.8	15.9	13.6
Molasses ⁵	18 ounces.....	15.7	15.8	15.8	13.4
Apple butter ⁶	16 ounces.....	13.7	13.4	13.0	(*)

¹ Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.² Not included in index.³ First priced, February 1943.⁴ Not priced.⁵ Composite price not computed.⁶ First priced, October 1941.TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Costs of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates

[1935-39=100]

City	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Oct. 17	Sept. 12	Oct. 19	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States.....	136.4	137.0	138.2	97.8	93.5
New England:					
Boston.....	131.1	132.9	133.1	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport.....	135.4	135.1	137.1	96.5	93.2
Fall River.....	131.2	132.4	135.2	97.5	95.4
Manchester.....	133.4	134.2	134.5	96.6	94.9
New Haven.....	135.7	136.3	138.6	95.7	93.7
Portland, Maine.....	133.8	133.6	134.3	95.3	95.9
Providence.....	134.6	135.9	136.9	96.3	93.7
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo.....	134.7	134.8	138.5	100.2	94.5
Newark.....	138.8	138.5	140.8	98.8	95.6
New York.....	137.2	137.3	138.7	99.5	95.8
Philadelphia.....	133.5	134.7	137.1	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh.....	136.6	138.0	138.2	98.0	92.5
Rochester.....	132.5	133.8	133.1	99.9	92.3
Scranton.....	138.1	138.1	138.7	97.5	92.1
East North Central:					
Chicago.....	135.8	137.3	136.6	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati.....	133.4	135.8	136.1	96.5	90.4
Cleveland.....	141.9	142.8	143.9	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio.....	128.7	129.4	131.7	93.4	88.1
Detroit.....	132.8	134.0	134.5	97.0	90.6
Indianapolis.....	132.7	134.3	135.4	98.2	90.7
Milwaukee.....	135.7	135.5	135.4	95.9	91.1
Peoria.....	139.9	140.6	141.3	96.0	93.4
Springfield, Ill.....	141.1	142.5	141.6	96.2	94.1
West North Central:					
Cedar Rapids ²	138.8	139.0	138.0	95.9	-----
Kansas City.....	129.7	130.9	132.6	92.4	91.5
Minneapolis.....	130.4	129.7	132.3	99.0	95.0
Omaha.....	130.0	129.9	132.5	97.9	92.3
St. Louis.....	138.0	139.8	139.1	99.2	93.8
St. Paul.....	128.3	127.9	130.5	98.6	94.3
Wichita ³	146.8	147.0	145.8	97.2	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Costs of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates—Continued*

[1935-39=100]

City	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Oct. 17	Sept. 12	Oct. 19	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta	136.9	137.8	140.3	94.3	92.5
Baltimore	142.0	140.7	147.0	97.9	94.7
Charleston, S. C.	134.5	134.7	137.1	95.9	95.1
Jacksonville	146.1	148.1	146.8	98.8	95.8
Norfolk ²	140.8	141.1	148.3	95.8	93.6
Richmond	134.7	134.1	137.1	93.7	92.2
Savannah	150.9	152.8	152.2	100.5	96.7
Washington, D. C.	134.7	135.2	140.2	97.7	94.1
Winston-Salem ²	137.6	137.4	139.4	93.7	—
East South Central:					
Birmingham	139.5	140.3	141.8	96.0	90.7
Jackson ²	149.3	150.7	147.5	105.3	—
Knoxville ²	156.3	157.9	157.5	97.1	—
Louisville	131.0	131.7	135.0	95.5	92.1
Memphis	144.9	146.5	144.4	94.2	89.7
Mobile	145.4	146.6	147.5	97.9	95.5
West South Central:					
Dallas	131.9	132.9	137.1	92.6	91.7
Houston	136.6	137.5	138.4	102.6	97.8
Little Rock	135.4	137.4	133.4	95.6	94.0
New Orleans	150.7	153.1	152.1	101.9	97.6
Mountain:					
Butte	133.1	133.1	136.5	98.7	94.1
Denver	136.2	136.4	135.3	94.8	92.7
Salt Lake City	141.3	140.3	140.5	97.5	94.6
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	143.0	141.4	143.3	101.8	94.6
Portland, Oreg.	146.5	144.8	144.6	101.7	96.1
San Francisco	145.2	143.3	142.4	99.6	93.8
Seattle	143.3	141.7	142.8	101.0	94.5

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), weighted to represent total purchases of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

² June 1940=100.

³ Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ 1913 to October 1944*

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1933	84.1	1942—Con.	
1914	81.8	1934	93.7	August	137.2
1915	80.9	1935	100.4	September	137.4
1916	90.8	1936	101.3	October	138.2
1917	116.9	1937	105.3	November	137.3
1918	134.4	1938	97.8	December	137.1
1919	149.8	1939	95.2		
1920	168.8	1940	96.6	1944	
1921	128.3	1941	105.5	January	136.1
1922	119.9	1942	123.9	February	134.5
1923	124.0	1943	138.0	March	134.1
1924	122.8			April	134.6
1925	132.9	1943		May	135.5
1926	137.4	January	133.0	June	135.7
1927	132.3	February	133.6	July	137.4
1928	130.8	March	137.4	August	137.7
1929	132.5	April	140.6	September	137.0
1930	126.0	May	143.0	October	136.4
1931	103.9	June	141.9		
1932	86.5	July	139.0		

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in November 1944

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics index of commodity prices in primary markets¹ rose 0.3 percent in November 1944 to 104.4 percent of the 1926 average. The rise placed the all-commodities index at a new 19-year peak. Substantial increases in certain agricultural products, particularly wheat, cows, eggs, and most fruits and vegetables, were primarily responsible for the increase. During the 12 months ended in November, the index rose 1.5 percent and was 39.2 percent above the relatively low pre-war level of August 1939, when it stood at 75.0.

Except for farm products and foods, fluctuations in the group indexes were slight during November. Farm products and foods advanced 0.8 and 0.9 percent, respectively. Fuel and lighting materials, building materials, and miscellaneous commodities rose fractionally. Chemicals and allied products showed the only decline in group levels during the month; the group index dropped 0.2 percent. Indexes for hides and leather products, textile products, metals and metal products, and housefurnishing goods remained unchanged at the October levels.

Reflecting the advances for farm products, average prices for raw materials rose 0.5 percent during the month. The level for manufactured products rose 0.1 percent while that for semimanufactured articles remained unchanged.

Led by a seasonal advance of more than 10 percent for eggs and seasonally higher prices for certain fruits and vegetables, together with substantial price increases for oats, wheat, cows and sheep, average prices for farm products at the primary market level rose 0.8 percent from October to November. Prices for cows increased nearly 5 percent, for wheat 1 percent, and for sheep slightly less than 1 percent. Quotations for live poultry in both the Chicago and New York markets averaged more than 6 percent above the October level. Among fruits and vegetables showing seasonal advances were apples which rose more than 3 percent; sweetpotatoes, nearly 21 percent; and white potatoes at Boston and Chicago, slightly more than 2 percent. Both foreign and domestic wools were somewhat higher in November. Average prices for barley, corn, and rye declined, and quotations were somewhat lower for calves, steers, and hogs, and for cotton.

An advance of 0.9 percent in average prices for foods was caused principally by the seasonal increases for eggs, fruits, and vegetables and higher prices for oatmeal, rye flour, black pepper, and cottonseed

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

oil. On the other hand, wheat flour declined 0.2 percent on the average and prices were slightly lower for canned tomatoes and lemons.

In the hides and leather products group the only price change recorded was for sheepskins, which declined 1.1 percent. The index for the group remained unchanged from October.

Prices for textile products at the primary market level, which had showed gradual advances since May, steadied in November and were unchanged from the October level. The index for the group was 99.4 percent of the 1926 average. The recent rises were primarily due to the influence of the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944. Men's cotton woven shorts averaged slightly more than 1 percent higher than in October and staple acetate rayon declined 5 percent.

The 0.2 percent rise in the index for fuel and lighting materials was caused by higher adjustment prices for anthracite and an increased realization average for electricity.

There were a few changes in metals and metal product markets during November, although the index remained unchanged from the level of the preceding month. Scrap steel declined as mills were reluctant to accumulate inventories and buying continued somewhat selective. Mercury prices continued to rise and averaged more than 6 percent above October.

In the building materials group, slight increases were reported for brick and cement as a result of higher ceiling prices granted by OPA in certain areas. Quotations were higher for linseed oil and rosin and lower for sand and gravel. Average prices for lumber remained unchanged although some increases were allowed and some decreases enforced by OPA.

The decrease of 0.2 percent in average prices for chemicals and allied products resulted from lower quotations for anhydrous ammonia and cottonseed meal.

A slight increase in prices for flat top and typewriter desks did not affect the index for housefurnishing goods, which remained at 104.4 where it has stood since August 1944.

Prices of cigars moved upward, reflecting OPA action in raising ceiling prices on some brands in order to stop the disappearance of low-priced goods, and resulted in an advance of 0.4 percent in the index for miscellaneous commodities.

Compared with November 1943 the composite average has risen 1.5 percent. Prices for most agricultural products were higher, while food prices averaged 0.7 percent lower. The increases in industrial commodity prices were largely the result of governmental action in raising ceiling prices to stimulate production or to allow for increased costs of manufacture and higher taxes. During the year ended in November, textile products rose 1.7 percent; housefurnishing goods, 1.6 percent; fuel and lighting materials, 2.3 percent; building materials, 2.9 percent; and chemicals and allied products, 4.5 percent. On the contrary, hides and leather products declined 0.3 percent and metals and metal products 0.1 percent. During the year prices for raw materials advanced 2.2 percent; semimanufactured articles, 2.0 percent; and manufactured products, 0.9 percent. The large groups of all commodities other than farm products and all commodities other than farm products and foods increased 1.1 and 1.4 percent, respectively.

Compared with the outbreak of the war in September 1939, prices for nearly all commodities were substantially higher. Among the outstanding increases were 103.9 percent for farm products, 94.4 percent for fruits and vegetables, 70.7 percent for lumber, and more than 150 percent for oils and fats. Other subgroup indexes showing more than 50 percent increases during the war period were livestock and poultry, dairy products, cotton goods, other textile products, drugs and pharmaceuticals, and cattle feed. In general, the increases for industrial commodities have been less severe than for agricultural products and foods.

Percentage comparisons of the November 1944 level of wholesale prices with October 1944, November 1943, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, November 1944, Compared with October 1944, November 1943, and August 1939

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	November 1944	October 1944	Percent of change	November 1943	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	104.4	104.1	+0.3	102.9	+1.5	75.0	+39.2
Farm products	124.4	123.4	+.8	121.4	+2.5	61.0	+103.9
Grains	124.8	125.1	-.2	123.2	+1.3	51.5	+142.3
Livestock and poultry	127.0	127.1	-.1	120.5	+5.4	66.0	+92.4
Other farm products	121.8	119.9	+1.6	120.5	+1.1	60.1	+102.7
Foods	105.1	104.2	+.9	105.8	-.7	67.2	+56.4
Dairy products	110.7	110.7	0	110.9	-.2	67.9	+63.0
Cereal products	94.7	94.7	0	94.7	0	71.9	+31.7
Fruits and vegetables	113.7	112.7	+.9	118.5	-4.1	58.5	+94.4
Meats	106.1	106.0	+.1	106.3	-.2	73.7	+44.0
Other foods	99.3	96.8	+2.6	99.5	-.2	60.3	+64.7
Hides and leather products	116.2	116.2	0	116.5	-.3	92.7	+25.4
Shoes	126.3	126.3	0	126.4	-.1	100.8	+25.3
Hides and skins	107.1	107.3	-.2	108.5	-1.3	77.2	+38.7
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	+20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	+18.6
Textile products	99.4	99.4	0	97.7	+1.7	67.8	+46.6
Clothing	107.4	107.4	0	107.0	+.4	81.5	+31.8
Cotton goods	118.8	118.8	0	112.9	+5.2	65.5	+81.4
Hosiery and underwear	71.5	71.5	0	71.7	-.3	61.5	+16.3
Rayon	30.2	30.3	-.3	30.3	-.3	28.5	+6.0
Silk	(1)	(1)	0	(1)	0	44.3	-----
Woolen and worsted goods	112.9	112.9	0	112.5	+.4	75.5	+49.5
Other textile products	100.9	100.9	0	100.5	+.4	63.7	+58.4
Fuel and lighting materials	83.1	82.9	+.2	81.2	+2.3	72.6	+14.5
Anthracite	95.3	95.2	+.1	90.6	+5.2	72.1	+32.2
Bituminous coal	120.5	120.5	0	116.6	+3.3	96.0	+25.5
Coke	130.7	130.7	0	124.1	+5.3	104.2	+25.4
Electricity	(1)	(1)	0	58.3	0	75.8	-----
Gas	(1)	76.0	0	77.0	0	86.7	-----
Petroleum and products	63.8	63.8	0	63.5	+.5	51.7	+23.4
Metals and metal products	103.7	103.7	0	103.8	-.1	93.2	+11.3
Agricultural implements	97.5	97.5	0	96.9	+.6	93.5	+4.3
Farm machinery	98.7	98.6	+.1	98.1	+.6	94.7	+4.2
Iron and steel	97.1	97.1	0	97.1	0	95.1	+2.1
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.8	0	86.0	-.2	74.6	+15.0
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	91.8	+.7	79.3	+16.5
Building materials	116.4	116.3	+.1	113.1	+2.9	89.6	+29.9
Brick and tile	105.0	104.8	+.2	100.0	+5.0	90.5	+16.0
Cement	97.7	97.5	+.2	93.6	+4.4	91.3	+7.0
Lumber	153.8	153.8	0	147.4	+4.3	90.1	+70.7
Paint and paint materials	106.3	106.0	+.3	103.2	+3.0	82.1	+29.5
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	91.8	+.7	79.3	+16.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	103.3	103.3	0	102.2	+1.1	89.5	+15.4

¹ Data not yet available.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, November 1944, Compared with October 1944, November 1943, and August 1939—Con.*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	November 1944	October 1944	Per- cent of change	November 1943	Per- cent of change	Aug- ust 1939	Per- cent of change
Chemicals and allied products.....	104.8	105.0	-0.2	100.3	+4.5	74.2	+41.2
Chemicals.....	95.5	96.0	-5	96.3	-8	83.8	+14.0
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	217.2	217.2	0	165.2	+31.5	77.1	+181.7
Fertilizer materials.....	81.8	81.8	0	81.3	+6	65.5	+24.9
Mixed fertilizers.....	86.6	86.6	0	86.1	+6	73.1	+18.5
Oils and fats.....	102.0	102.0	0	102.0	0	40.6	+151.2
Housefurnishing goods.....	104.4	104.4	0	102.8	+1.6	85.6	+22.0
Furnishings.....	107.4	107.4	0	107.1	+3	90.0	+19.3
Furniture.....	101.5	101.4	+1	98.4	+3.2	81.1	+25.2
Miscellaneous.....	94.0	93.6	+4	93.2	+9	73.3	+28.2
Automobile tires and tubes.....	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	+20.7
Cattle feed.....	159.6	159.6	0	159.6	0	68.4	+133.3
Paper and pulp.....	107.2	107.2	0	105.8	+1.3	80.0	+34.0
Rubber, crude.....	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	+32.4
Other miscellaneous.....	97.8	97.0	+8	96.5	+1.3	81.3	+20.3
Raw materials.....	113.8	113.2	+5	111.3	+2.2	66.5	+71.1
Semimanufactured articles.....	94.8	94.8	0	92.9	+2.0	74.5	+27.2
Manufactured products.....	101.1	101.0	+1	100.2	+9	79.1	+27.8
All commodities other than farm products.....	99.9	99.8	+1	98.8	+1.1	77.9	+28.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	98.8	98.7	+1	97.4	+1.4	80.1	+23.3

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to November 1944

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1943, and by months from November 1943 to November 1944, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leath- er prod- ucts	Tex- tile prod- ucts	Fuel and light- ing mat- erials	Metals and metal prod- ucts	Build- ing mat- erials	Chem- icals and allied prod- ucts	House- furnish- ing goods	Mis- cel- lan- eous	All com- modi- ties
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940.....	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941.....	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942.....	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	98.8
1943.....	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	100.3	102.7	92.2	103.1
<i>1943</i>											
November.....	121.4	105.8	116.5	97.7	81.2	103.8	113.1	100.3	102.8	93.2	102.9
December.....	121.8	105.6	117.0	97.7	82.1	103.8	113.4	100.4	102.8	93.3	103.2
<i>1944</i>											
January.....	121.8	104.9	117.2	97.7	82.3	103.7	113.5	100.4	104.5	93.2	103.3
February.....	122.5	104.5	116.9	97.7	83.1	103.7	113.6	100.4	104.2	93.4	103.6
March.....	123.6	104.6	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	114.2	100.4	104.3	93.5	103.8
April.....	123.2	104.9	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	115.2	105.4	104.3	93.5	103.9
May.....	122.9	105.0	117.0	97.8	83.2	103.7	115.7	105.4	104.3	93.5	104.0
June.....	125.0	106.5	116.4	97.8	83.3	103.7	115.9	105.2	104.3	93.5	104.3
July.....	124.1	105.8	116.2	98.0	83.2	103.7	115.9	105.3	104.3	93.6	104.1
August.....	122.6	104.8	116.0	98.4	83.2	103.8	116.0	105.3	104.4	93.6	103.9
September.....	122.7	104.2	116.0	99.2	83.0	103.8	116.0	104.9	104.4	93.6	104.0
October.....	123.4	104.2	116.2	99.4	82.9	103.7	116.3	105.0	104.4	93.6	104.1
November.....	124.4	105.1	116.2	99.4	83.1	103.7	116.4	104.8	104.4	94.0	104.4

odities,
—Con.Percent
of
change+41.2
+14.0
+181.7
+24.9
+18.5
+151.2

+22.0

+19.3

+25.2

+28.2

+20.7

+133.3

+34.0

+32.4

+20.3

+71.1

+27.2

+27.8

+28.2

1944

OR SE-

1943

All
com-
modi-
ties

100.0

95.3

64.8

65.9

80.8

86.3

78.6

77.1

78.6

87.3

98.8

103.1

102.9

103.2

103.3

103.6

103.8

103.9

104.0

104.3

104.1

103.9

104.0

104.1

104.4

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 and 11 of Wholesale Prices, July-December and Year 1943 (Bulletin No. 785).

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1944					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	January	112.2	93.2	100.2	99.1	97.8
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	February	112.8	93.4	100.4	99.3	98.0
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	March	113.4	93.7	100.5	99.3	98.1
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	April	113.2	93.6	100.8	99.6	98.4
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	May	113.0	93.7	100.9	99.7	98.5
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	June	114.2	93.8	100.9	99.6	98.5
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3						
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	July	113.6	93.9	100.9	99.6	98.5
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	August	112.7	94.1	100.9	99.7	98.6
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	September	112.8	94.7	100.9	99.7	98.6
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	October	113.2	94.8	101.0	99.8	98.7
						November	113.3	94.8	101.1	99.9	98.8
<i>1945</i>											
November	111.3	92.9	100.2	98.8	97.4						
December	112.1	93.1	100.2	99.0	97.6						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during October and November 1944 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, October and November 1944*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Nov. 25	Nov. 18	Nov. 11	Nov. 4	Oct. 28	Oct. 21	Oct. 14	Oct. 7
All commodities	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.0	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.9
Farm products	124.1	124.5	124.4	124.0	123.3	122.8	122.7	123.3
Foods	105.0	104.9	104.9	104.4	104.1	103.9	103.8	104.1
Hides and leather products	116.7	116.7	116.7	116.7	116.7	116.7	116.7	116.8
Textile products	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.8	98.8
Fuel and lighting materials	83.6	83.6	83.5	83.5	83.5	83.6	83.8	83.8
Metals and metal products	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.9	103.9
Building materials	116.4	116.4	116.4	116.4	116.4	116.3	116.1	116.1
Chemicals and allied products	104.8	104.8	104.7	104.7	104.9	104.9	104.9	104.9
Housefurnishing goods	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1
Miscellaneous	93.5	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.4
Raw materials	114.1	114.3	114.3	114.0	113.5	113.2	113.2	113.7
Semimanufactured articles	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.6	94.6
Manufactured products	101.2	101.2	101.1	101.1	101.2	101.2	101.2	101.2
All commodities other than farm products	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.9	98.9	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.9	98.9	98.9

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, October 1944

OF every 1,000 workers on factory pay rolls in October, 50 quit, 6 were discharged, and 3 left to enter the armed forces. The total separation rate of 64 per 1,000 was the lowest since November 1943. Lay-off and discharge rates together were 11 per 1,000 in all manufacturing industries.

The quit rate for all manufacturing, although considerably lower than the September rate of 61 per 1,000, was only slightly below that in October 1943. All major manufacturing groups reported a lower rate in October than in September. The highest quit rates were in the food and lumber groups, in which 80 and 77 employees per 1,000, respectively, voluntarily left their jobs. Seasonal declines, which began in September in these two groups, accounted for the relatively high rate of quits.

Only 4 of the 20 major manufacturing groups reported increased lay-off rates. A curtailment in the production of gun turrets almost doubled the rate of lay-off in the gun industry of the ordnance group. A change-over from glass to metal containers for the packaging of food was the primary reason for the laying off of 8 per 1,000 workers in the stone, clay, and glass group. Reports from employers indicated that completion of contracts accounted for increased lay-off rates in the furniture group.

For the second consecutive month the nonferrous-metals group reported the highest lay-off rate. The lay-off rate of 13 per 1,000 in this group reflected continued cutbacks in the production of aluminum and magnesium.

Following the same trend as in the manufacturing industries, separation rates in each of the mining industries declined between September and October. The separation rate for metal mining was only slightly below that for manufacturing, 60 per 1,000; the separation rates in anthracite and bituminous-coal mining were 16 and 40 per 1,000, respectively. In each of the mining industries, the accession rate was considerably below the separation rate.

The total separation rate for women in all manufacturing was 83 per 1,000, as against 58 for men. Although the quit rate for women was considerably higher than that for men, separations other than quits (i. e., lay-offs, discharges, and miscellaneous separations) were approximately the same for both. The hiring rates for both men and women more than compensated for their quit rates.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries¹*

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Total separation:												
1944-----	6.7	6.6	7.4	6.8	7.1	7.1	6.6	7.8	7.6	6.4	-----	-----
1943-----	7.1	7.1	7.7	7.5	6.7	7.1	7.6	8.3	8.1	7.0	6.4	6.6
1939-----	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
Quit:												
1944-----	4.6	4.6	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.4	5.0	6.2	6.1	5.0	-----	-----
1943-----	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.4	4.8	5.2	5.6	6.3	6.3	5.2	4.5	4.4
1939-----	.9	.6	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.1	.9	.8	.7
Discharge:												
1944-----	.7	.6	.7	.6	.6	.7	.7	.7	.6	1.6	-----	-----
1943-----	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1939-----	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: ²												
1944-----	.8	.8	.9	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.6	2.5	-----	-----
1943-----	.7	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.7	1.0
1939-----	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.7
Military and miscellaneous: ³												
1944-----	.6	.6	.8	.7	.7	.5	.4	.4	.3	1.3	-----	-----
1943-----	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1944-----	6.5	5.5	5.8	5.5	6.4	7.6	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	-----	-----
1943-----	8.3	7.9	8.3	7.4	7.2	8.4	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.2	6.6	5.2
1939-----	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8

¹ Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor-turnover rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a 1-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor-turnover data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. The labor-turnover sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

² Data are preliminary.

³ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

⁴ Miscellaneous separations comprise not more than 0.1 in these figures. In 1939 these data were included with quits.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ October 1944²*

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Oct- ober 1944 ²	Sep- tember 1944										
<i>Manufacturing</i>												
Ordnance	8.2	9.0	6.0	7.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.3	0.3	8.0	7.4
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	9.3	8.0	4.1	4.8	.7	.6	4.2	2.4	.3	.2	5.3	4.4
Ammunition, except for small arms	9.2	10.4	7.3	8.5	1.1	1.1	.5	.5	.3	.3	10.0	9.3
Tanks	6.9	8.9	5.5	6.2	.8	1.0	.4	1.4	.2	.3	6.4	6.2
Sighting and fire-control equipment	2.8	3.9	2.0	2.9	.3	.4	.2	.3	.3	.3	3.0	2.5
Iron and steel and their products	5.2	5.7	3.9	4.4	.5	.5	.5	.5	.3	.3	4.5	4.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.4	4.0	2.8	3.2	.2	.2	.2	.3	.2	.3	2.9	2.8
Gray-iron castings	7.7	8.2	6.4	6.9	.7	.8	.3	.1	.3	.4	8.4	8.1
Forgeable-iron castings	5.5	6.6	4.6	5.0	.5	.6	.2	.7	.2	.3	5.6	6.3
Steel castings	6.5	6.9	5.1	5.6	.7	.8	.3	.2	.4	.3	5.8	6.5
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.8	5.8	4.5	5.2	.4	.3	.5	.1	.4	.2	6.0	4.8
Tin cans and other tinware	13.1	20.0	9.7	16.0	1.9	2.6	1.2	1.1	.3	.3	10.9	15.2
Wire products	4.3	3.4	2.7	2.8	.4	.2	.9	.2	.3	.2	3.7	3.2
Cutlery and edge tools	7.3	8.0	6.8	7.6	.2	.2	.1	(0)	.2	.2	10.8	10.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.1	6.9	3.8	5.7	.8	.6	.1	.3	.4	.3	6.1	5.7
Hardware	5.0	5.6	4.3	4.4	.4	.3	.1	.5	.2	.4	5.1	4.1
Plumbers' supplies	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	7.5	9.0	5.9	7.4	1.1	1.0	.2	.3	.3	.3	9.8	10.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ October 1944*²—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	October 1944 ³	September 1944	October 1944 ²	September 1944	October 1944 ²	September 1944						
<i>Manufacturing—Continued</i>												
Iron and steel and their products— Continued.												
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	4.7	5.5	3.2	4.3	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	3.7	3.6
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	8.4	9.4	6.7	8.0	.8	.8	.6	.3	.3	.3	8.0	8.7
Fabricated structural-metal products	9.1	9.5	6.0	6.4	1.1	1.0	1.7	1.7	.3	.4	6.6	6.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	5.3	7.2	3.4	3.8	.5	.4	1.2	2.7	.2	.3	3.5	3.3
Forgings, iron and steel	4.3	5.1	3.2	4.0	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.3	3.6	3.5
Firearms, .60 caliber and under	7.3	6.1	3.7	4.1	.8	.8	2.5	1.0	.3	.2	4.4	5.2
Electrical machinery	5.0	6.6	3.7	5.2	.6	.6	.4	.4	.3	.4	4.1	4.8
Electrical equipment for industrial use	4.1	4.8	3.1	3.8	.3	.3	.4	.4	.3	.3	2.9	3.3
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	5.9	7.8	4.3	6.5	.9	.8	.4	.2	.3	.3	5.1	5.8
Communication equipment, except radios	4.4	6.4	3.4	5.2	.5	.5	.2	.2	.3	.5	4.0	4.4
Machinery, except electrical	4.6	5.4	3.3	4.1	.6	.5	.4	.5	.3	.3	3.9	3.7
Engines and turbines	5.9	6.0	3.7	4.6	.7	.5	1.2	.6	.3	.3	4.0	4.0
Agricultural machinery and tractors	4.6	5.4	3.7	4.4	.4	.4	.1	.3	.4	.3	4.5	4.4
Machine tools	3.1	4.2	2.0	2.9	.5	.5	.4	.5	.2	.3	2.8	2.9
Machine-tool accessories	4.0	4.6	2.6	3.0	.6	.6	.6	.8	.2	.2	3.5	3.2
Metal-working machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.7	4.5	2.7	3.3	.6	.6	.1	.2	.3	.4	3.9	3.1
Textile machinery	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
General industrial machinery, except pumps	4.6	5.8	3.4	4.5	.6	.6	.3	.4	.3	.3	3.8	3.5
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.5	6.5	3.5	4.9	.6	.7	.1	.6	.3	.3	4.4	4.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.7	8.9	5.3	6.2	1.2	1.3	.9	1.0	.3	.4	6.2	6.1
Aircraft	6.2	8.3	4.8	6.0	.6	.7	.5	1.2	.3	.4	4.9	4.8
Aircraft parts	6.4	6.9	4.0	4.8	.7	.8	1.5	1.1	.2	.2	4.1	4.5
Shipbuilding and repairs	9.5	10.2	6.4	7.0	1.8	1.9	.9	.9	.4	.4	8.3	7.9
Automobiles	5.6	6.3	4.2	4.9	.8	.8	.3	.3	.3	.3	7.1	6.7
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	4.9	5.9	3.5	4.7	.8	.7	.3	.2	.3	.3	6.2	6.7
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	6.1	6.5	4.7	5.0	.8	.8	.3	.4	.3	.3	7.8	6.7
Nonferrous metals and their products	6.8	8.1	4.5	5.4	.6	.6	1.3	1.7	.4	.4	5.1	4.5
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	3.8	4.1	3.0	3.3	.2	.3	.2	.2	.4	.3	2.7	3.0
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	12.4	17.3	6.6	11.0	.3	.5	4.8	5.2	.7	.6	5.8	4.3
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	4.1	4.5	3.3	3.8	.4	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	4.2	4.2
Aluminum and magnesium products	8.1	8.1	4.9	5.2	.7	.8	2.1	1.7	.4	.4	5.2	4.2
Lighting equipment	8.0	7.8	6.0	5.8	1.2	.6	.4	1.2	.4	.2	9.9	10.1
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	6.7	10.4	5.1	6.1	.7	.6	.7	3.4	.2	.3	5.9	5.1
Lumber and timber basic products	8.9	10.4	7.7	9.1	.5	.4	.4	.6	.3	.3	8.3	8.1
Sawmills	8.7	10.1	7.5	8.9	.5	.4	.4	.5	.3	.3	8.2	7.8
Planing and plywood mills	6.9	9.1	5.9	7.6	.5	.5	.2	.7	.3	.3	6.0	7.6
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.8	9.7	7.4	8.5	.6	.6	.6	.4	.2	.2	8.2	8.3
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.6	9.4	7.3	8.2	.6	.6	.5	.3	.2	.3	8.6	8.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.1	6.1	3.7	5.0	.3	.3	.8	.4	.3	.4	4.6	5.1
Glass and glass products	5.6	6.3	3.6	5.1	.3	.4	1.3	.3	.4	.5	5.7	6.0
Cement	3.4	4.0	2.4	3.3	.2	.4	.6	.1	.2	.2	3.0	3.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	5.3	6.8	4.2	5.5	.3	.3	.5	.6	.3	.4	5.4	4.9
Pottery and related products	5.9	6.7	5.1	5.7	.2	.2	.3	.5	.3	.3	4.7	5.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ October 1944²—Continued*

	Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
		October 1944 ³	September 1944	October 1944 ³	September 1944	October 1944 ³	September 1944						
<i>Manufacturing—Continued</i>													
	Textile-mill products	5.9	7.2	5.0	6.2	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	5.7	5.9
	Cotton	6.7	8.2	5.8	7.2	.4	.4	.3	.4	.2	.2	6.7	6.8
	Silk and rayon goods	6.1	7.2	5.3	6.3	.5	.5	.1	.2	.2	.2	6.4	6.5
7 3.6	Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	3.9	4.3	3.1	3.6	.2	.2	.4	.3	.2	.2	3.7	3.9
0 8.7	Hosiery, full-fashioned	3.9	5.1	3.6	4.7	.1	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	3.2	3.8
6 6.5	Hosiery, seamless	5.5	6.4	5.0	5.9	.2	.2	.2	.2	.1	.1	5.3	5.8
5 3.3	Knitted underwear	4.8	7.1	4.4	6.6	.2	.3	.1	.1	.1	.1	4.4	5.1
6 3.5	Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	4.0	4.9	2.7	4.1	.5	.3	.5	.2	.3	.3	3.8	4.0
4 5.2	Apparel and other finished textile products	5.6	7.1	5.1	6.2	.2	.2	.2	.6	.1	.1	5.6	5.7
1 4.8	Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.2	4.7	3.7	4.4	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	.1	4.1	4.7
9 3.3	Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	5.7	7.4	5.3	7.0	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	5.6	5.8
0 4.0	Leather and leather products	5.9	6.8	5.2	6.2	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2	.2	5.7	5.7
9 3.7	Leather	4.6	4.5	3.8	3.7	.2	.3	.3	.2	.3	.3	4.3	3.4
0 4.0	Boots and shoes	6.2	7.2	5.5	6.6	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2	.2	6.0	6.1
5 4.4	Food and kindred products	9.0	10.8	8.0	9.6	.5	.6	.3	.3	.2	.3	9.3	10.9
8 2.9	Meat products	9.0	9.9	7.7	8.6	.5	.6	.5	.4	.3	.3	8.4	8.2
5 3.2	Grain-mill products	9.2	10.8	8.1	10.0	.8	.4	.1	.1	.2	.3	9.4	10.9
3 3.5	Tobacco manufactures	7.4	7.9	6.7	7.4	.4	.3	.1	.1	.2	.1	8.4	7.6
9 4.3	Paper and allied products	6.0	8.1	5.1	7.1	.4	.4	.2	.3	.3	.3	6.3	7.2
(9)	Paper and pulp	5.6	7.6	4.6	6.6	.4	.4	.2	.3	.4	.3	5.7	6.8
3 3.5	Paper boxes	8.3	9.2	7.2	8.2	.6	.5	.2	.3	.3	.2	8.9	9.4
4 4.3	Chemicals and allied products	5.0	6.3	3.9	4.8	.6	.6	.2	.6	.3	.3	5.2	5.7
2 4.8	Paints, varnishes, and colors	3.9	4.6	3.1	3.9	.3	.4	.3	.1	.2	.2	3.7	3.3
1 4.5	Rayon and allied products	4.3	6.4	3.5	4.8	.3	.4	.2	.9	.3	.3	4.4	5.1
6 6.1	Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.3	5.2	3.2	4.2	.6	.5	.2	.2	.3	.3	4.0	4.2
4 4.8	Explosives	6.5	6.9	5.4	5.9	.6	.6	.2	(3)	.3	.4	8.5	8.8
3 7.9	Small-arms ammunition	5.3	7.9	4.1	5.3	.8	.8	.2	1.6	.2	.2	5.4	7.4
6 6.7	Products of petroleum and coal	3.0	4.0	2.4	3.2	.3	.3	.1	.2	.2	.3	3.1	3.2
6 6.7	Petroleum refining	2.7	4.0	2.2	3.2	.2	.3	.1	.2	.2	.3	3.1	3.2
3 6.7	Rubber products	5.9	7.7	5.0	6.7	.4	.5	.2	.2	.3	.3	5.4	6.4
6 6.7	Rubber tires and inner tubes	6.0	7.2	5.2	6.3	.4	.5	.1	.1	.3	.3	5.7	6.9
4 4.5	Rubber footwear and related products	6.5	7.7	5.7	7.0	.4	.3	.1	.2	.3	.2	6.6	6.9
3 3.0	Miscellaneous rubber industries	5.5	8.4	4.5	7.2	.5	.5	.2	.4	.3	.3	4.8	5.7
4 4.3	Miscellaneous industries	5.1	5.9	4.0	4.7	.4	.5	.4	.4	.3	.3	4.6	4.8
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>													
4 4.2	Metal mining	6.0	6.8	4.4	5.2	.4	.3	.6	.7	.6	.6	3.6	3.7
4 4.2	Iron-ore	4.9	4.2	2.6	3.3	.4	.1	1.2	.3	.7	.5	1.7	1.9
4 4.2	Copper-ore	6.6	7.5	5.1	6.1	.4	.3	.3	.4	.8	.7	4.7	4.5
10 10.1	Lead- and zinc-ore	6.1	6.6	5.3	5.3	.4	.5	(3)	.3	.4	.5	4.4	4.5
5 5.1	Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum-ore	7.9	13.2	5.8	8.6	.8	.8	.9	3.2	.4	.6	4.2	5.5
8 8.1	Coal mining:												
7 7.8	Anthracite mining	1.6	1.8	1.3	1.4	(3)	(3)	.1	.2	.2	.2	1.1	1.3
7 7.6	Bituminous-coal mining	4.0	4.1	3.5	3.5	.2	.2	.1	.1	.2	.3	3.5	3.0
8 8.2	Public utilities:												
8 8.3	Telephone	3.3	4.2	2.9	3.7	.1	.2	.1	.2	.2	.1	3.1	2.8
8 8.2	Telegraph	3.5	4.5	3.2	4.0	.1	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	3.5	4.0

¹ Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turnover have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-roll sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major products.

² Data are preliminary.

³ Less than 0.05.

⁴ Data not available.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, November 1944

AROUND 86 million dollars' worth of building construction was started in urban areas of the United States during November, almost 14 million dollars less than in October. This drop was accounted for almost entirely by the decline of 29 percent in the value of new nonresidential building started.

Both Federal and non-Federal building declined from October, but Federal building dropped by 29 percent as compared with 5 percent for non-Federal.

The volume of work started in November 1944 was 23 percent less than in November of the previous year, new residential construction values being 60 percent lower and addition, alteration, and repair values, 30 percent higher. The valuation of new nonresidential building started in November was virtually the same as in November 1943.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, November 1943 and October and November 1944*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	November 1944	Percent of change from—		November 1944 (in thou- sands)	Percent of change from—	
		October 1944	No- vember 1943		October 1944	No- vember 1943
All building construction	47,944	-15.3	-13.4	\$85,903	-13.8	-22.7
New residential	6,890	+6.1	-60.9	21,946	+1.3	-59.6
New nonresidential	6,889	-16.5	+13.6	33,908	-28.6	+.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs	34,165	-18.4	+8.0	29,959	-.7	+29.6

The total of 7,950 family dwelling units for which permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded during November was 5 percent above the October total but 59 percent below that for November 1943. Nearly four-fifths, or 6,314, were privately financed; 1,636 were in Federal war housing projects. In November 1943, Federally financed units were more than half the total.

TABLE 2.—Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, Nov. 1943, and Oct. and Nov. 1944

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	November 1944	Percent of change from—		November 1944 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		Octo- ber 1944	No- vember 1943		Octo- ber 1944	No- vember 1943
All dwellings	7,950	+4.9	-58.6	\$21,835	+0.1	-50.3
Privately financed	6,314	-8.3	-32.9	17,472	-11.4	-41.2
1-family	4,832	-8.6	-31.1	13,411	-12.0	-41.1
2-family ¹	612	-16.7	-53.2	1,729	-7.3	-53.6
Multifamily ²	870	+1.0	-20.0	2,332	-10.4	-27.4
Federally financed	1,636	+135.4	-83.3	4,363	+108.4	-81.8

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 11 Months of 1943 and 1944

Permit valuation and contract values for all building construction as reported in the first 11 months of 1944 are compared with similar data for 1943 in tables 3 and 4. The cumulative value of non-Federal building construction started thus far in 1944 was 10 percent higher than it was over the same period in 1943. The decline in Federal building values of more than two-fifths, however, caused the total cumulative value of building construction in urban areas thus far in 1944, amounting to slightly more than 1 billion dollars, to fall 15 percent short of the 1.2 billions for the same period of 1943. An increase of nearly one-third in the volume of additions, alterations, and repairs through November, as compared with the same period of 1943, was more than offset by declines of about 41 and 5 percent, respectively, in new residential and new nonresidential volume.

TABLE 3.—Valuation of Building Construction in all Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 11 Months of 1943 and 1944

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total construction			Federal construction		
	First 11 months of—		Percent of change	First 11 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All construction	1,012,443	1,187,127	-14.7	307,220	543,308	-43.5
New residential	319,793	544,556	-41.3	45,824	197,387	-76.8
New nonresidential	402,783	424,536	-5.1	246,267	329,860	-25.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs	289,867	218,035	+32.9	15,129	16,061	-5.8

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in all Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 11 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 11 months of—		Percent of change	First 11 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All dwellings.....	104,311	196,284	-46.9	315,945	531,890	-40.6
Privately financed.....	87,708	111,252	-21.2	272,109	346,285	-21.4
1-family.....	67,297	72,618	-7.3	208,762	238,979	-12.6
2-family ¹	8,872	15,241	-41.8	29,596	42,708	-30.7
Multifamily ²	11,539	23,303	-50.7	33,751	64,598	-47.8
Federal.....	16,603	85,032	-80.5	43,836	185,605	-76.4

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction from Public Funds, November 1944

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during October and November 1944 and November 1943 on all construction projects, excluding shipbuilding, financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes construction both inside and outside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects¹ Financed from Federal Funds, November 1944*

Source of funds	Value (in thousands) of contracts awarded and force-account work started in—		
	November 1944 ²	October 1944 ³	November 1943 ¹
All Federal funds.....	\$70,216	\$78,391	\$146,722
War public works.....	4,133	6,794	4,518
Regular Federal appropriations ¹	60,463	69,047	112,420
Federal Public Housing Authority.....	5,620	2,190	29,784

¹ Excludes the following amounts (in thousands) for ship construction: November 1944, \$386,081; October 1944, \$29,607; November 1943, \$206,359.

² Preliminary; subject to revision.

³ Revised.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States which by Census definition includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning value, are derived from estimates of construction cost made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits which were received in November 1944 for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at \$25,653,000 in November 1944, \$36,236,000 in October 1944, and \$44,981,000 in November 1943.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Reports for November 1944

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was 38,400,000 in November, 14,000 less than in October and almost 1½ million less than in November 1943. Between November 1943 and November 1944, the armed forces have expanded by 1¾ million.

Industrial and Business Employment

Although manufacturing employment continued to decline, a greater than seasonal expansion took place in trade, reflecting the large volume of pre-Christmas retail buying.

The 78,000 decrease in the durable-goods group of manufacturing, coupled with a decline of 13,000 in the nondurable group, resulted in an over-all decline of 91,000 factory workers.

Employment in six of the nine durable-goods groups declined. For the twelfth consecutive month, the largest decline was reported in the transportation-equipment group; employment in this group was 1,874,000, as compared with a peak of 2,337,000 in November 1943.

All but two of the nondurable groups increased employment. These were relatively small and were more than offset by the seasonal drop of almost 40,000 in the food group. The largest increase was reported by the chemicals group, brought about by expanded operations in the rayon, explosives, small-arms ammunition, and fireworks industries. The 8,000 increase in textile-mill products was made possible by labor returning from agriculture.

Employment in each of the durable-goods and in all but one of the nondurable-goods groups was considerably below a year ago. The net decline in factory workers from the peak month of November 1943 amounted to 1½ million workers.

Employment in bituminous-coal mining was 339,000, a decrease of 29,000 from November 1943 and of 3,000 from October 1944. A similar decline in employment was also reported by the metal-mining group. Employment declines in both of the mining groups were attributed to shortages of manpower.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group*¹

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	November 1944 ²	October 1944	September 1944	November 1943	November 1944 ²	October 1944
All manufacturing.....	12,568	12,659	12,802	14,007	153.4	154.5
Durable goods.....	7,389	7,467	7,572	8,456	204.6	206.8
Nondurable goods.....	5,179	5,192	5,230	5,551	113.1	113.3
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,630	1,634	1,647	1,744	164.4	164.8
Electrical machinery.....	691	700	711	751	266.6	270.2
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,117	1,127	1,137	1,263	211.3	213.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	1,874	1,910	1,948	2,337	1180.8	1203.6
Automobiles.....	650	666	678	760	161.6	165.5
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	357	363	369	426	155.5	158.5
Lumber and timber basic products.....	416	414	423	463	99.0	98.5
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	332	331	333	361	101.2	100.9
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	322	322	326	351	109.8	109.6
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,081	1,073	1,077	1,190	94.5	93.8
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	781	767	763	823	96.4	97.2
Leather and leather products.....	305	303	303	315	87.8	87.3
Food.....	1,007	1,045	1,097	1,013	117.8	122.4
Tobacco manufactures.....	84	83	82	90	90.0	89.3
Paper and allied products.....	299	297	296	316	112.8	112.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	332	331	325	342	101.2	100.9
Chemicals and allied products.....	614	602	593	729	213.2	208.8
Products of petroleum and coal.....	133	132	134	126	125.5	125.1
Rubber products.....	192	190	191	199	158.5	157.1
Miscellaneous industries.....	371	369	369	408	151.5	150.6

¹ The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

² Preliminary.

Public Employment

Regular Federal.—Employment in war agencies within continental United States in November 1944 declined for the third consecutive month from the 1944 peak in August. War-agency employment outside continental United States continued upward, however. A net increase of 4,300 in agencies other than war agencies reflected increases in the Post Office Department (3,200), Treasury Department (1,600), Veterans Administration (1,000), and Federal Works Agency (800), and decreases of 1,200 in the Agriculture Department and of 800 in the Tennessee Valley Authority. The increase in postal employment was almost entirely in the intermittent-employee group and undoubtedly reflected anticipation of an unusually large volume of business at Christmastime.

The net increase in total Federal employment (including employment in Government corporations) between October and November 1944 amounted to 7,000 and brought the total to 3,375,000, or 130,000 higher than it was in November 1943.

Shipbuilding and repair.—Employment on all shipbuilding and repair projects decreased 8,200 during November 1944, although the sharp decline in the North Atlantic region and the smaller declines in the Great Lakes and Inland regions (totaling 12,500) were partially offset by increases in the South Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific regions.

Relatively, pay rolls declined more than employment (4 percent as compared with 0.6 percent) between October and November 1944. This is accounted for by the fact that many of the shipyards had 5 pay periods ending in October, and only 4 in November.

Sources of data.—Data for the Federal executive service are reported to the Civil Service Commission, whereas data for the legislative and judicial services and Government corporations are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and pay rolls on shipbuilding and repair projects are received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics directly from all shipyards within continental United States. Employees in the United States navy yards are included in the data both for the Federal executive service and for shipbuilding and repair.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services, and in Government Corporations, November 1944*

[Subject to revision]

Service	Employment			Pay rolls		
	November 1944	October 1944	November 1943	November 1944	October 1944	November 1943
Total	3,375,135	3,367,853	3,245,303	\$720,179,250	\$718,715,563	(1)
Executive ¹	3,330,841	3,323,289	3,198,945	713,292,000	711,795,000	\$685,440,000
War agencies ²	2,482,548	2,479,308	2,377,952	543,709,000	543,008,000	521,210,000
Continental United States	2,045,720	2,053,014	2,014,934	(1)	(1)	(1)
Outside continental United States ³	436,828	426,294	363,018	(1)	(1)	(1)
Other agencies	848,293	843,981	820,993	169,583,000	168,697,000	164,230,000
Continental United States	832,492	828,157	803,598	(1)	(1)	(1)
Outside continental United States ⁴	15,801	15,824	17,395	(1)	(1)	(1)
Judicial	2,646	2,633	2,647	788,508	754,771	767,438
Legislative	6,253	6,240	6,110	1,529,260	1,522,068	1,494,947
Government corporations ⁵	35,395	35,601	37,601	4,569,482	4,643,724	(1)

¹ Data not available.

² Includes employees in United States navy yards who are also included under shipbuilding (table 3) and employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 4). Pay rolls are estimated.

³ Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Selective Service System, the Petroleum Administration for War, War Refugee Board, Committee for Congested Production Areas, Petroleum Reserves Corporation, and Office of Contract Settlement.

⁴ Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

⁵ Data are for employees of the Panama Railroad Co., the Federal Reserve Banks, and banks of the Farm Credit Administration, who are paid out of operating revenues and not out of Federal appropriations. Data for other Government corporations are included under the executive service.

TABLE 3.—*Total Employment and Pay Rolls in United States Navy Yards and Private Shipyards Within Continental United States, by Shipbuilding Region, November 1944*

Shipbuilding region	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	November 1944 ¹	October 1944	November 1943	November 1944 ¹	October 1944	November 1943
All regions	1,467.9	1,476.1	1,721.7	\$413,950	\$432,365	\$482,012
United States navy yards ²	321.6	320.7	324.0	91,962	90,406	88,434
Private shipyards	1,146.3	1,155.4	1,397.7	321,988	341,979	393,578
North Atlantic	518.0	527.9	634.5	182,678	156,235	(3)
South Atlantic	130.1	130.0	153.8	34,875	35,231	(3)
Gulf	196.2	195.7	235.4	54,055	57,966	(3)
Pacific	513.4	509.7	579.8	142,803	150,536	(3)
Great Lakes	53.9	54.8	66.0	15,006	17,324	(3)
Inland	56.4	58.1	52.2	14,533	15,093	(3)

¹ Preliminary.² Includes all navy yards within continental United States constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Md.) Coast Guard Yard.³ Break-down not available.

Construction Employment

An upturn in site employment on public-utility construction in November 1944, although partially offset by declines on all other types of projects except nonresidential buildings, was responsible for the increase of 3,200 site employees on all privately financed construction. The total of 394,200 for non-Federal projects in November 1944 was only 800 lower than the total in November 1943. Except for a shift from residential to nonresidential building and a sizable increase in employment on miscellaneous projects, employment on the various types of projects fluctuated within very narrow limits throughout the year.

Site employment on Federally financed construction declined 10,600 in November 1944, mainly as a result of a decline in nonresidential building construction. All types of projects share in the employment decline of 54 percent during the year, but residential building, airport, nonresidential building, and street and highway construction declined relatively more than the other types of projects.

Between November 1943 and November 1944 site employment on both Federal and non-Federal projects declined relatively more than other employment—28 percent as against 22 percent. Between October and November 1944, however, other employment dropped 6 percent and site employment 1 percent.

Source of data.—For construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls at the construction site, directly from the contractors or from the Federal agency sponsoring the project. Force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government are also included in table 2 under Federal executive service.

Estimates of employment on non-Federal construction projects (except State roads) are obtained by converting the value of work started (compiled from reports on building permits issued, priorities granted, and from certain special reports) into monthly expenditures and employment by means of factors which have been developed

from special studies and adjusted to current conditions. For State roads projects, data represent estimates of the Public Roads Administration.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction Within Continental United States, November 1944*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	November 1944 ¹	October 1944	November 1943	November 1944 ¹	October 1944	November 1943
New construction, total ²	724.7	740.5	996.2	(3)	(3)	(3)
At the construction site	594.9	602.3	830.1	(3)	(3)	(3)
Federal projects ⁴	200.7	211.3	435.1	\$41,579	\$46,207	\$30,586
Airports	11.1	11.7	42.5	2,162	2,446	7,439
Buildings	123.5	135.4	297.9	26,260	30,784	64,974
Residential	13.5	15.5	53.3	2,391	3,214	10,895
Nonresidential ³	110.0	119.9	244.6	23,869	27,570	54,079
Electrification	.4	.6	.5	66	91	101
Reclamation	9.8	11.0	17.3	2,210	2,434	3,752
River, harbor, and flood control	20.9	19.9	27.9	4,094	4,054	5,782
Streets and highways	14.1	14.3	24.1	2,802	2,669	4,268
Water and sewer systems	5.0	5.3	7.5	838	928	1,186
Miscellaneous	15.9	13.1	17.4	3,147	2,801	3,084
Non-Federal projects	394.2	391.0	395.0	(3)	(3)	(3)
Buildings	197.1	196.9	210.7	46,702	46,862	46,565
Residential	90.7	90.7	139.7	(3)	(3)	(3)
Nonresidential	106.4	106.2	71.0	(3)	(3)	(3)
Farm	51.6	53.5	50.5	(3)	(3)	(3)
Public utilities	96.8	88.2	93.4	(3)	(3)	(3)
Streets and highways	32.9	36.0	32.3	(3)	(3)	(3)
State	17.0	17.5	16.6	(3)	(3)	(3)
County and municipal	15.9	18.5	15.7	(3)	(3)	(3)
Miscellaneous	15.8	16.4	8.1	(3)	(3)	(3)
Other ⁵	129.8	138.2	166.1	(3)	(3)	(3)
Maintenance of State roads ⁶	86.5	89.0	86.4	(3)	(3)	(3)

¹ Preliminary.

² Data are for all construction workers (contract and force-account) engaged on new construction, additions and alterations, and on repair work of the type usually covered by building permits. (Force-account employees are workers hired directly by the owner and utilized as a separate work force to perform construction work of the type usually chargeable to capital account.) The construction figure included in the Bureau's nonagricultural employment series covers only employees of construction contractors and on Federal force-account, and excludes force-account workers of State and local governments, public utilities, and private firms.

³ Data not available.

⁴ Includes the following force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government: November 1943, 41,290; October 1944, 26,298; November 1944, 25,103. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service (table 2); all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.

⁵ Includes the following employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation (RFC) projects: November 1943, 108,391, \$25,746,100; October 1944, 19,899, \$4,736,700; November 1944, 16,430, \$3,632,900.

⁶ Includes central office force of construction contractors, shop employees of special trades contractors such as bench sheet-metal workers, etc., and site employees engaged on projects which, for security reasons, cannot be shown above.

Data for other types of maintenance not available.



Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, October 1944

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of employment in nonagricultural establishments are shown in table 1. The estimates are based on reports of employers to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on unemployment-compensation data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of

Old-Age and Survivors Insurance. The estimates include all wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural establishments but exclude military personnel, proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic servants.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are published each month in a detailed report on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	October 1944	September 1944	August 1944	October 1943
Total estimated employment ¹	38,414	38,523	38,744	39,718
Manufacturing.....	15,699	15,839	16,023	17,194
Mining.....	816	826	834	873
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction.....	650	671	700	1,002
Transportation and public utilities.....	3,766	3,793	3,818	3,689
Trade.....	7,146	6,996	6,918	7,076
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.....	4,396	4,452	4,582	4,037
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction.....	5,932	5,946	5,869	5,847

¹ Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

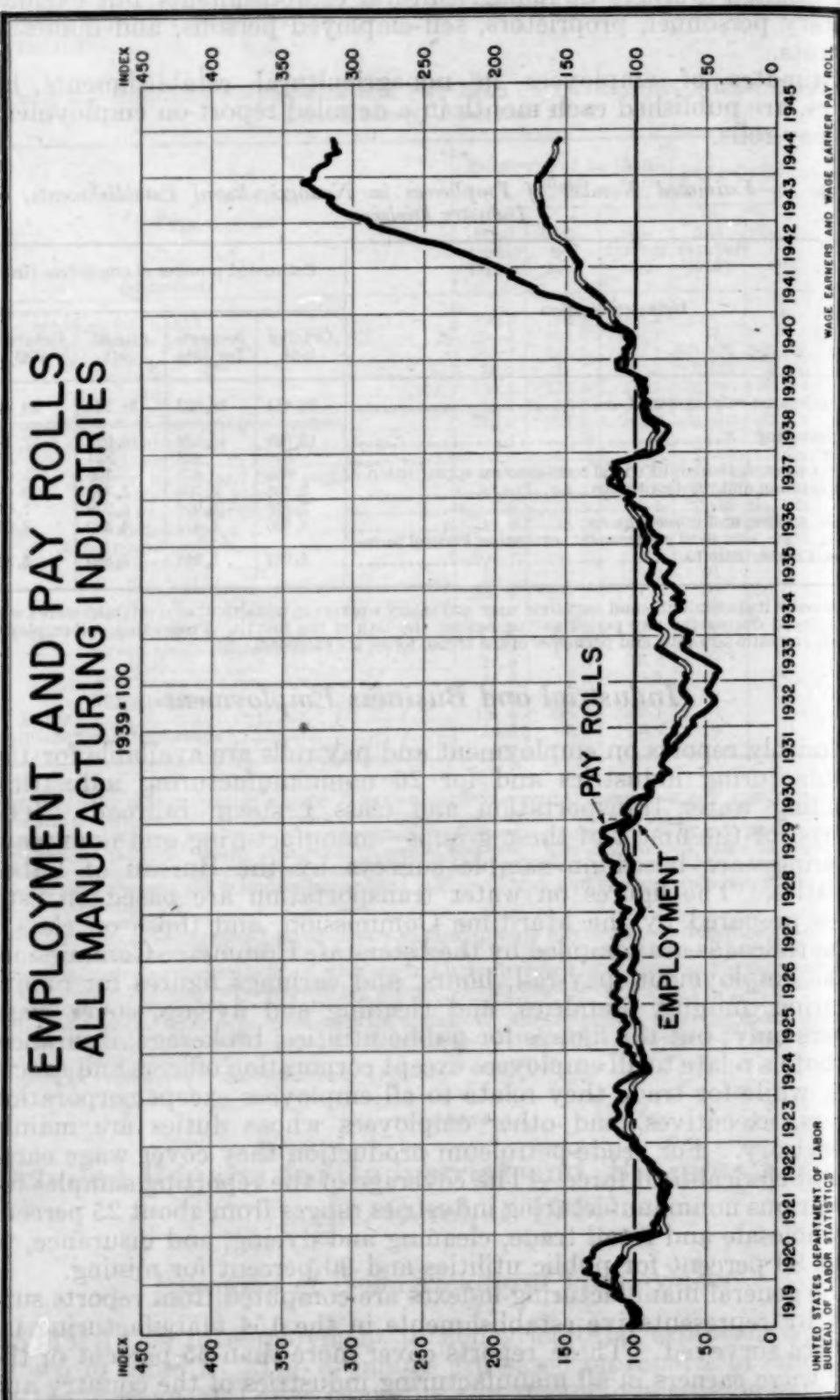
Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 26 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and cleaning and dyeing, cover wage earners only; but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from about 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, cleaning and dyeing, and insurance, to about 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 154 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 154 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the period ending nearest the 15th of the month.



INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, for both manufacturing and non-manufacturing industries, for August, September, and October 1944, and for October 1943, are presented in tables 3 and 5.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers, regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustments to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group do not in general add to the total for that group.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries*¹

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	October 1944	Septem- ber 1944	August 1944	October 1943
All manufacturing	12,659	12,802	12,942	13,965
Durable goods	7,467	7,572	7,690	8,389
Nondurable goods	5,192	5,230	5,252	5,576
<i>Durable goods</i>				
Iron and steel and their products	1,634	1,647	1,662	1,731
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	473.6	476.7	482.0	509.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	72.7	72.5	73.0	78.2
Malleable-iron castings	25.0	25.0	24.7	25.7
Steel castings	71.6	72.3	73.5	81.0
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.2	15.3	15.5	15.3
Tin cans and other tinware	40.9	41.9	42.0	34.0
Wire drawn from purchased rods	32.2	32.6	32.5	35.5
Wirework	35.5	35.5	35.3	33.4
Cutlery and edge tools	23.3	23.0	22.7	22.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	26.9	27.0	27.2	27.5
Hardware	45.7	45.6	46.2	46.6
Plumbers' supplies	22.1	22.7	23.0	23.3
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	62.4	63.3	64.0	59.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	54.8	55.1	55.5	59.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	87.5	88.3	89.6	93.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	73.4	73.9	74.5	72.4
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	11.7	12.8	13.5	13.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	25.2	25.7	26.2	29.7
Forgings, iron and steel ²	35.6	35.4	35.5	40.1
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	25.7	25.3	25.8	26.5
Screw-machine products and wood screws	42.7	43.4	44.2	49.0
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	7.5	7.3	7.4	8.7
Firearms ³	41.6	43.6	43.7	66.8
Electrical machinery	700	711	716	734
Electrical equipment	438.3	444.4	449.6	469.6
Radios and phonographs	123.4	124.6	124.5	123.9
Communication equipment	107.7	110.2	110.4	116.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹*—Con.

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	October 1944	Septem- ber 1944	August 1944	October 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Machinery, except electrical	1,127	1,137	1,151	1,255
Machinery and machine-shop products	449.8	453.9	460.6	498.6
Engines and turbines ²	67.9	69.3	70.3	70.6
Tractors	57.0	57.5	58.7	56.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	43.9	44.2	44.5	41.1
Machine tools	74.7	75.6	76.0	97.4
Machine-tool accessories	65.0	65.5	66.5	84.3
Textile machinery	27.1	27.0	26.6	28.8
Pumps and pumping equipment	74.9	75.2	77.0	78.7
Typewriters	12.0	11.7	11.4	12.2
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	31.2	31.9	32.2	36.3
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	11.9	12.9	13.2	14.7
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	10.1	9.8	9.5	10.7
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	51.5	51.2	52.2	57.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1,910	1,948	1,902	2,324
Locomotives	35.8	35.3	35.8	35.6
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	57.4	57.2	57.8	59.4
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding ²	1,054.3	1,074.2	1,002.0	1,283.0
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.0	8.9	9.3	10.3
Automobiles	666	678	684	751
Nonferrous metals and their products	363	369	378	422
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	41.8	44.1	47.2	59.1
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	68.9	69.2	69.5	76.2
Clocks and watches	26.1	26.0	25.9	24.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	13.4	13.5	13.8	15.2
Silverware and plated ware	11.0	10.9	10.7	11.9
Lighting equipment	27.2	27.1	27.1	26.6
Aluminum manufactures	64.2	66.4	69.6	88.2
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	32.6	32.8	32.8	29.2
Lumber and timber basic products	414	423	434	463
Sawmills and logging camps	227.3	233.5	240.1	253.4
Planing and plywood mills	69.6	69.7	71.0	78.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	331	333	342	359
Mattresses and bedsprings	17.9	17.6	17.4	19.4
Furniture	152.5	153.4	157.2	168.0
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	26.9	27.3	28.1	29.3
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.1	12.3	12.7	11.7
Wood preserving	9.5	9.8	10.4	10.0
Wood, turned and shaped	21.3	21.2	22.0	21.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	322	326	331	350
Glass and glassware	87.1	88.3	90.0	89.8
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.3	10.2	10.2	10.8
Cement	17.1	17.3	17.5	22.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	41.1	41.9	43.0	46.9
Pottery and related products	30.9	40.5	41.1	42.1
Gypsum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.6	9.6	9.9	10.8
Lime	7.8	8.0	8.3	8.9
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13.6	13.2	13.5	12.6
Abrasives	20.7	20.9	21.1	24.1
Asbestos products	19.7	19.9	20.5	22.0
<i>Nondurable goods</i>				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,073	1,077	1,084	1,187
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	424.1	427.5	431.4	472.1
Cotton smallwares	13.3	13.1	13.0	15.7
Silk and rayon goods	88.3	88.3	88.7	93.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	146.0	145.8	144.8	160.7
Hosiery	101.4	102.9	104.4	113.5
Knitted cloth	10.3	10.1	10.3	11.6
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	28.7	28.4	28.5	32.1
Knitted underwear	34.2	34.3	35.2	39.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	59.1	59.4	59.5	64.7
Carpets and rugs, wool	20.1	20.1	20.2	21.3
Hats, fur-felt	0.3	0.2	0.1	10.0
Jute goods, except felts	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.6
Cordage and twine	15.0	15.1	15.1	16.7

See footnotes at end of table.

Con.
ers
tober
943TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹—Con.

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	October 1944	Septem- ber 1944	August 1944	October 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Apparel and other finished textile products	767	763	765	825
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	208.1	208.0	210.5	222.2
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	51.7	51.7	52.1	56.4
Underwear and neckwear, men's	12.2	12.1	12.0	12.7
Work shirts	14.6	14.7	15.0	17.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	218.8	216.4	214.6	232.2
Corsets and allied garments	14.8	14.4	14.5	16.5
Millinery	19.2	19.3	19.0	18.8
Handkerchiefs	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	13.1	13.1	13.3	16.2
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	11.4	11.0	10.8	13.7
Textile bags	13.8	13.7	14.2	14.4
Leather and leather products	303	303	307	314
Leather	39.3	39.4	40.0	41.6
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	16.0	15.5	16.0	16.3
Boots and shoes	171.0	172.0	173.8	177.0
Leather gloves and mittens	12.7	12.5	12.6	14.0
Trunks and suitcases	12.7	12.6	12.3	12.2
Food	1,045	1,007	1,092	1,045
Slaughtering and meat packing	147.9	150.6	156.3	159.3
Butter	21.3	22.3	24.0	21.6
Condensed and evaporated milk	13.7	14.2	15.1	12.8
Ice cream	14.5	15.4	17.3	14.7
Flour	28.4	28.1	28.3	29.8
Feeds, prepared	19.8	19.8	20.3	21.4
Cereal preparations	8.4	8.5	9.1	10.1
Baking	261.5	255.6	258.5	257.6
Sugar refining, cane	14.7	14.9	15.4	14.5
Sugar, beet	17.7	6.7	4.6	17.4
Confectionery	58.9	56.5	56.6	57.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	27.6	29.8	31.6	28.2
Malt liquors	51.8	52.9	53.5	48.0
Canning and preserving	180.1	244.4	219.7	170.9
Tobacco manufactures	83	82	82	89
Cigarettes	35.3	34.6	34.9	35.1
Cigars	34.5	34.4	34.4	39.9
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.3	8.0	7.9	8.4
Paper and allied products	207	296	302	313
Paper and pulp	143.2	144.5	146.8	148.5
Paper goods, other	44.2	42.4	44.8	47.8
Envelopes	9.7	9.5	9.5	10.2
Paper bags	12.9	13.1	13.6	12.5
Paper boxes	78.3	77.7	78.5	84.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	331	325	332	336
Newspapers and periodicals	110.3	109.3	110.2	112.6
Printing, book and job	133.3	130.3	133.3	133.4
Lithographing	24.4	24.0	24.8	24.9
Bookbinding	27.6	27.1	27.9	29.7
Chemicals and allied products	602	593	590	740
Paints, varnishes, and colors	29.6	29.5	30.0	29.7
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	49.5	49.0	50.0	47.2
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.4	12.0	12.1	11.6
Soap	13.5	13.5	13.5	13.3
Rayon and allied products	53.1	52.7	53.1	53.0
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	115.9	117.0	118.3	122.2
Explosives and safety fuses ²	87.7	83.5	81.2	87.0
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.3
Ammunition, small-arms ³	50.3	49.8	47.3	153.5
Fireworks ³	27.2	27.6	29.1	29.9
Cottonseed oil	19.0	16.1	12.4	21.9
Fertilizers	19.0	19.1	19.1	20.1
Products of petroleum and coal	132	134	135	126
Petroleum refining	90.0	90.7	91.4	82.4
Coke and byproducts	22.4	22.9	23.2	23.8
Paving materials	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9
Roofing materials	9.6	9.5	9.6	9.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹*—Con.

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	October 1944	Septem- ber 1944	August 1944	October 1943
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>				
Rubber products	190	191	191	195
Rubber tires and inner tubes	92.3	92.3	91.2	90.1
Rubber boots and shoes	18.4	18.5	19.5	21.2
Rubber goods, other	70.0	70.4	71.2	74.3
Miscellaneous industries	369	369	372	406
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment ²	60.8	61.5	61.6	71.4
Photographic apparatus	27.7	27.9	28.8	30.4
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods ³	23.3	23.4	23.8	27.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	7.1	6.8	6.3	10.7
Games, toys, and dolls	16.9	16.9	17.0	16.4
Buttons	9.1	9.0	9.1	10.1
Fire extinguishers	5.3	5.5	5.6	7.3

¹ Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Forgings, iron and steel.—June and July wage earners to 37.0 and 35.5.

³ Comparable data for the months from January 1939 are available upon request.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹*

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943
All manufacturing	154.5	156.3	158.0	170.5	314.4	313.1	314.0	332.6
Durable goods	206.8	209.7	213.0	232.3	431.1	428.6	432.7	468.8
Nondurable goods	113.3	114.2	114.6	121.7	200.3	200.1	198.0	199.6
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products	164.8	166.1	167.6	174.6	310.9	312.0	309.2	318.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	121.9	122.7	124.1	131.2	225.3	226.7	222.7	232.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	124.4	124.2	125.0	133.9	254.3	252.0	245.4	256.4
Malleable-iron castings	138.7	138.8	136.7	142.3	296.5	292.5	279.7	287.3
Steel castings	237.8	240.3	244.4	269.1	453.4	452.0	455.9	482.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	92.0	92.6	93.7	92.6	185.1	181.6	178.4	167.6
Tin cans and other tinware	128.6	131.8	132.1	107.0	216.5	224.8	221.5	175.1
Wire drawn from purchased rods	146.4	148.4	148.1	161.6	252.2	247.5	243.5	260.0
Wirework	117.0	116.9	116.1	109.9	235.6	237.5	231.5	215.7
Cutlery and edge tools	151.3	149.2	147.5	144.6	317.7	310.0	304.6	293.8
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	175.7	176.3	177.4	179.4	329.0	328.6	331.4	342.5
Hardware	128.1	128.0	129.7	130.6	266.5	261.1	261.8	265.5
Plumbers' supplies	89.5	92.1	93.3	94.5	165.4	167.4	170.3	166.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	135.2	137.3	138.7	128.0	262.2	261.0	256.2	231.7
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	180.7	181.9	183.2	197.0	347.4	341.3	344.9	365.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	157.5	159.0	161.3	168.2	327.3	326.6	324.4	330.9
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal-work	206.6	208.0	209.8	203.7	400.7	406.6	411.2	384.3
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	151.3	165.0	173.9	177.6	288.7	302.6	319.6	327.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	176.3	179.4	182.8	207.7	346.9	347.3	354.3	396.7
Forgings, iron and steel ²	231.3	230.5	231.2	260.8	468.3	463.0	441.0	514.2
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	307.2	302.5	308.3	316.6	634.4	586.2	604.1	564.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws	252.3	256.4	261.1	289.4	496.4	502.8	512.1	560.7
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	123.2	119.7	121.2	142.5	244.9	232.3	238.6	272.0
Firearms ³	831.9	871.5	873.5	1336.3	1869.1	2002.6	1995.6	2031.9
Electrical machinery	270.2	274.2	276.2	283.4	492.7	500.9	496.1	494.7
Electrical equipment	242.5	245.9	248.7	259.8	450.3	457.7	455.6	461.2
Radios and phonographs	283.5	286.4	286.2	284.7	538.0	547.0	534.1	525.3
Communication equipment	335.4	343.2	343.7	363.0	552.0	561.8	551.9	547.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*¹—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>								
Machinery, except electrical	213.2	215.2	217.8	237.6	406.1	403.1	406.2	441.4
Machinery and machine-shop products	222.3	224.3	227.7	246.4	415.5	410.3	415.1	447.4
Engines and turbines	364.1	371.3	376.8	378.6	786.6	772.6	786.3	804.8
Tractors	182.1	183.8	187.5	180.2	291.9	291.0	291.0	279.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	157.7	159.0	160.1	147.9	314.9	332.7	319.1	288.4
Machine tools	204.0	206.5	207.4	266.0	372.6	366.8	369.2	455.8
Machine-tool accessories	258.5	260.4	264.2	335.9	447.3	449.6	449.8	562.1
Textile machinery	123.6	123.3	121.3	131.3	233.4	226.3	220.6	237.8
Pumps and pumping equipment	308.9	310.2	317.9	324.8	659.4	665.6	669.3	693.8
Typewriters	73.8	72.3	70.5	75.5	152.0	144.4	140.1	151.1
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	158.4	162.2	163.4	184.7	309.2	317.0	319.6	377.9
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	158.8	172.3	177.4	197.5	283.2	306.1	310.7	340.5
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	129.4	125.5	120.8	137.1	271.0	261.8	249.4	294.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	146.4	145.7	148.4	164.1	272.5	259.3	272.3	296.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1203.6	1227.1	1255.3	1464.3	2597.4	2560.4	2606.1	2947.6
Locomotives	553.6	546.0	552.8	549.7	1297.7	1222.9	1279.0	1221.3
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	234.2	233.4	235.7	242.2	485.5	450.2	458.3	458.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	1522.5	1551.4	1577.1	1852.9	3468.7	3399.3	3379.1	3904.7
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	128.8	127.9	133.8	147.7	239.0	244.7	242.7	269.0
Automobiles	165.5	168.4	169.9	186.7	304.5	290.9	307.6	359.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	158.5	161.1	164.8	184.3	300.0	299.1	306.0	338.2
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	151.4	159.5	170.8	213.8	285.0	297.8	315.1	384.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	177.5	178.4	179.0	196.2	335.8	330.1	336.6	365.8
Clocks and watches	128.5	128.4	127.7	122.6	268.1	265.8	265.8	241.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	92.9	93.4	95.2	105.4	157.5	155.2	149.0	159.1
Silverware and plated ware	90.9	89.6	88.5	97.8	163.7	161.8	157.8	169.8
Lighting equipment	132.9	132.3	132.6	130.0	238.7	222.7	234.0	226.5
Aluminum manufactures	272.7	282.1	295.6	374.4	501.6	506.3	521.9	663.0
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	174.1	175.0	175.2	155.6	329.1	323.5	321.7	282.0
Lumber and timber basic products	98.5	100.6	103.2	110.2	191.2	188.1	197.8	200.9
Sawmills and logging camps	78.9	81.1	83.4	88.0	156.5	154.3	164.8	163.8
Planing and plywood mills	95.9	95.9	97.7	108.6	170.9	167.2	167.4	181.8
Furniture and finished lumber products	100.9	101.6	104.1	109.4	189.7	186.2	191.4	191.0
Mattresses and bedsprings	97.4	95.9	94.8	105.6	175.1	167.5	161.3	175.4
Furniture	95.8	96.3	98.8	105.5	178.5	175.0	181.0	184.4
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	106.3	107.7	110.9	115.6	221.4	215.2	220.1	212.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	97.3	99.2	102.0	94.2	170.8	172.4	177.8	150.3
Wood preserving	84.5	87.4	92.8	89.2	192.4	190.1	201.0	178.9
Wood, turned and shaped	96.9	96.4	99.8	99.4	175.6	174.1	180.6	167.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	109.6	111.0	112.9	119.3	189.9	186.3	189.0	194.0
Glass and glassware	124.8	126.5	129.0	128.6	204.9	200.7	204.3	202.1
Glass products made from purchased glass	102.6	102.0	101.4	107.9	175.2	173.1	168.9	169.4
Cement	71.8	72.6	73.4	94.1	119.8	115.8	117.8	141.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	72.4	73.9	75.7	82.5	122.1	119.3	124.1	129.9
Pottery and related products	120.5	122.4	124.1	127.3	191.5	189.1	193.0	192.5
Gypsum	80.8	80.6	80.0	91.2	143.8	137.3	140.7	159.9
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	117.8	118.2	121.9	132.5	218.5	224.9	218.8	230.0
Lime	82.3	84.4	87.2	94.4	170.5	164.8	171.1	171.3
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	73.5	71.5	72.9	68.0	113.4	105.6	112.2	98.9
Abrasives	267.8	270.6	273.0	311.3	467.7	470.5	453.4	501.0
Asbestos products	124.0	125.2	128.7	138.3	256.3	252.5	253.1	262.7
<i>Nondurable goods</i>								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	93.8	94.2	94.8	103.8	170.6	169.1	168.2	174.4
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	107.1	108.0	108.9	119.2	203.5	204.4	203.7	205.1
Cotton smallwares	100.2	98.7	97.3	117.7	182.9	175.3	173.9	203.3
Silk and rayon goods	73.7	73.7	74.1	78.3	138.6	132.8	133.7	136.1
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	97.8	97.7	97.0	107.7	188.0	185.1	181.1	197.6
Hosiery	63.7	64.7	65.7	71.3	103.7	103.6	105.5	109.2
Knitted cloth	94.3	92.7	94.1	106.3	165.9	164.5	160.0	174.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	102.2	101.0	101.5	114.3	190.5	184.5	181.9	195.2
Knitted underwear	88.9	89.0	91.3	103.0	164.3	162.5	163.3	176.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	88.4	88.8	88.9	96.8	149.6	148.3	146.2	152.4
Carpets and rugs, wool	78.5	78.6	78.9	83.3	135.9	135.4	134.5	135.9
Hats, fur-felt	64.1	63.4	62.7	68.5	124.6	119.2	116.1	120.5
Jute goods, except felts	91.6	92.2	92.5	101.6	179.1	179.7	173.7	183.2
Cordage and twine	123.8	124.7	124.9	138.3	233.6	232.7	229.3	237.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>								
Apparel and other finished textile products	97.2	96.6	96.9	104.6	175.5	174.4	167.1	164.1
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	95.2	95.1	96.3	101.6	169.1	165.9	160.6	158.2
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	73.3	73.4	74.0	80.1	130.9	128.4	127.5	134.2
Underwear and neckwear, men's	75.5	74.8	74.3	78.5	151.7	146.6	142.1	145.7
Work shirts	108.3	109.3	111.8	132.0	211.5	210.0	208.5	229.4
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	80.5	79.6	79.0	85.5	147.4	148.4	139.6	132.1
Corsets and allied garments	78.9	76.8	77.1	87.7	140.1	132.1	129.8	142.9
Millinery	79.2	79.4	78.1	77.2	126.8	137.1	129.3	105.5
Handkerchiefs	58.4	58.0	58.8	73.2	109.9	104.7	103.8	126.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	77.8	77.5	78.5	96.1	153.8	149.9	142.3	167.8
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	107.5	103.8	101.6	129.1	203.8	191.3	185.1	235.7
Textile bags ²	114.7	114.1	118.2	120.0	195.5	195.0	195.3	189.3
Leather and leather products	87.3	87.4	88.3	90.5	155.3	155.8	153.4	143.2
Leather	83.1	83.5	84.6	87.9	144.0	146.2	146.2	135.1
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	84.7	82.4	85.1	86.5	140.1	141.6	140.4	131.7
Boots and shoes	78.5	78.9	79.7	81.2	142.7	143.1	140.2	129.8
Leather gloves and mittens	126.8	124.9	125.7	139.8	223.0	224.5	221.8	230.1
Trunks and suitcases	152.4	150.7	147.7	146.6	248.3	236.1	230.6	226.0
Food	122.4	128.3	127.8	122.3	194.7	199.8	200.1	182.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	122.7	125.0	129.7	132.2	200.2	200.3	210.7	201.2
Butter	118.8	124.4	133.5	120.6	187.2	191.6	205.2	175.1
Condensed and evaporated milk	141.4	146.6	155.7	132.4	229.2	240.4	255.3	196.2
Ice cream	92.3	98.2	110.1	93.6	132.3	139.3	157.9	123.1
Flour	114.6	113.3	114.1	120.3	192.3	196.8	190.2	193.9
Feeds, prepared	128.6	128.3	132.0	138.8	219.3	225.9	221.5	225.8
Cereal preparations	113.1	114.6	122.0	135.3	198.9	201.4	208.3	236.3
Baking	113.3	110.8	112.0	111.7	171.4	168.7	167.5	159.0
Sugar refining, cane ³	103.6	105.5	108.9	102.7	172.9	171.7	172.5	160.4
Sugar, beet	169.8	64.0	44.6	166.9	226.3	86.2	64.2	206.2
Confectionery	118.5	113.5	113.8	115.3	199.6	191.6	188.3	178.1
Beverages, nonalcoholic	129.9	140.1	148.8	132.6	171.4	188.3	206.4	161.2
Malt liquors	143.6	146.5	148.2	133.1	209.6	216.1	223.9	183.8
Canning and preserving	133.9	181.8	163.4	127.1	262.3	336.4	306.2	224.2
Tobacco manufactures	89.3	88.1	88.3	95.5	165.9	163.1	157.6	160.2
Cigarettes	128.6	126.1	127.2	128.1	208.9	202.3	195.0	190.8
Cigars	67.8	67.6	67.6	78.3	137.0	137.6	133.4	141.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	90.0	87.4	86.0	92.0	148.4	143.8	135.6	140.0
Paper and allied products	112.0	111.6	113.9	118.0	187.4	184.6	186.0	183.0
Paper and pulp	104.2	105.1	106.8	108.0	181.5	179.1	180.6	174.1
Paper goods, other	117.3	112.7	119.0	126.9	189.4	181.1	187.3	191.7
Envelopes	111.2	109.4	109.5	117.7	171.7	166.3	165.4	172.3
Paper bags	116.7	118.5	122.4	112.5	199.3	201.6	199.6	180.6
Paper boxes	113.2	112.4	113.5	122.6	180.4	180.0	178.8	184.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	100.9	99.2	101.1	102.6	139.7	139.0	137.9	131.0
Newspapers and periodicals	92.9	92.1	92.9	94.9	119.3	119.6	118.4	114.4
Printing, book and job	105.5	103.2	105.5	105.6	153.7	151.5	149.4	138.2
Lithographing	93.9	92.2	95.2	95.6	132.2	132.8	132.3	125.0
Bookbinding	107.1	105.3	108.4	115.1	177.0	177.1	182.9	183.1
Chemicals and allied products	208.8	205.8	204.7	256.9	364.9	361.1	356.0	437.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors	105.1	104.9	106.4	105.7	167.1	166.0	169.1	160.0
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	180.7	178.8	182.4	172.2	268.2	265.0	265.2	251.4
Perfumes and cosmetics ²	120.1	115.5	116.9	111.6	176.2	167.3	161.6	154.7
Soap	99.5	99.1	99.5	98.0	170.7	171.3	165.8	151.0
Rayon and allied products	110.0	109.2	110.0	109.9	176.8	176.1	175.7	168.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	166.6	168.1	170.0	175.7	288.6	292.8	295.1	294.1
Explosives and safety fuses ³	1209.7	1151.9	1119.1	1199.4	1847.4	1781.6	1725.0	1827.6
Compressed and liquefied gases	146.1	148.5	153.8	159.1	262.1	262.9	271.7	272.2
Ammunition, small-arms ²	1178.6	1168.8	1109.6	3599.3	2402.2	2332.2	2224.8	6965.6
Fireworks ²	2348.5	2382.8	2516.4	2588.8	6262.5	6368.2	6578.7	6667.2
Cottonseed oil	124.9	106.0	81.4	144.2	263.9	214.4	153.7	274.2
Fertilizers	101.5	101.7	101.5	107.2	227.2	232.3	226.6	216.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Products of petroleum and coal.	125.1	126.2	127.3	119.3	224.6	221.0	229.7	197.7
Petroleum refining.	123.6	124.6	125.5	113.2	219.7	213.3	214.0	185.5
Coke and byproducts.	103.4	105.5	107.0	109.7	183.1	189.9	186.8	182.5
Paving materials.	68.6	69.0	74.3	79.0	143.3	142.0	152.5	146.1
Roofing materials.	119.4	117.9	119.7	120.6	217.4	219.0	218.0	213.7
Rubber products.	157.1	157.6	158.1	161.3	287.6	288.8	285.4	278.0
Rubber tires and inner tubes.	170.6	170.6	168.5	166.4	297.5	300.8	294.3	279.3
Rubber boots and shoes.	124.2	125.0	131.4	143.1	225.7	226.6	233.4	243.6
Rubber goods, other.	135.2	136.0	137.5	143.5	250.6	248.3	247.1	247.8
Miscellaneous industries.	150.6	150.7	152.0	166.0	293.0	289.7	286.0	301.3
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment ² .	549.9	556.6	557.1	645.5	1034.8	1038.6	1031.9	1163.6
Photographic apparatus.	160.7	161.6	166.6	176.1	268.6	268.4	270.8	278.2
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods ³ .	200.1	201.7	205.2	235.7	341.6	344.0	341.3	375.2
Pianos, organs, and parts.	92.9	89.1	83.4	141.1	174.7	180.4	158.5	206.8
Games, toys, and dolls.	90.6	90.3	91.2	88.0	185.5	181.8	181.5	158.0
Buttons.	83.4	82.0	82.7	92.2	169.0	167.7	153.8	169.4
Fire extinguishers.	527.9	549.1	560.0	736.2	1076.3	1126.3	1076.2	1293.5

¹ Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes published for earlier months:
 Forgings, iron and steel.—June and July 1944 employment indexes to 240.6 and 230.7; December 1943 through July 1944 pay-roll indexes to 522.6, 531.6, 535.0, 520.5, 492.9, 479.9, 474.1, and 441.7.
 Textile bags.—July 1944 pay-roll index to 193.3.
 Sugar refining, cane.—July 1944 pay-roll index to 174.0.
 Perfumes and cosmetics.—June and July 1944 pay-roll indexes to 158.6 and 164.6.

³ Comparable indexes for the months from January 1939 are available upon request.

TABLE 4.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	October 1944	September 1944	August 1944	October 1943
Coal mining:				
Anthracite.	66.7	67.5	64.5	69.6
Bituminous.	342	348	352	373
Metal mining:				
Iron.	70.9	72.7	75.4	93.8
Copper.	25.5	26.4	27.1	31.7
Lead and zinc.	22.3	22.5	23.8	31.0
Gold and silver.	14.7	15.0	15.4	18.8
Miscellaneous.	5.4	5.6	5.6	6.3
Telephone ¹ .	3.0	3.2	3.5	6.0
Telegraph ¹ .	404	407	412	408
Electric light and power ² .	46.0	46.0	46.2	47.8
Street railways and busses ³ .	201	202	203	207
Hotels (year-round) ⁴ .	228	230	230	229
Power laundries.	353	352	353	351
Cleaning and dyeing.	244	241	246	249
Class I steam railroads ⁴ .	80.9	79.9	79.9	81.0
Water transportation ¹ .	1,410	1,426	1,449	1,367
	135	136	134	93

¹ Data from January 1937 are available upon request. Salaried personnel are included.

² Data from January 1937 are available upon request. Excludes messengers and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters and of cable companies. Salaried personnel are included.

³ Data include salaried personnel.

⁴ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

⁵ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to, or owned by, the Army or Navy.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1943
Coal mining:								
Anthracite	80.5	81.5	77.9	84.0	159.8	150.1	145.8	146.5
Bituminous	92.3	93.9	95.0	100.6	210.2	207.8	215.6	198.0
Metal mining:	80.4	82.4	85.5	106.3	130.7	130.8	136.6	170.2
Iron	127.2	131.3	134.6	158.0	210.9	212.0	219.9	263.1
Copper	93.3	94.2	100.0	129.9	155.7	153.3	161.5	216.3
Lead and zinc	94.5	96.3	98.9	120.7	174.6	176.7	182.8	212.5
Gold and silver	22.0	22.7	22.7	25.5	29.6	28.7	29.9	33.2
Miscellaneous	74.9	81.1	87.6	151.7	125.6	136.7	148.6	241.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	83.0	84.3	86.7	94.1	163.4	158.2	165.3	169.4
Crude-petroleum production ¹	82.6	83.0	84.1	81.0	130.5	136.4	132.7	122.1
Public utilities:								
Telephone ²	127.1	128.2	129.6	128.4	159.1	159.4	156.6	148.9
Telegraph ²	122.1	122.2	122.8	126.9	174.9	177.9	177.9	165.2
Electric light and power	82.1	82.6	83.2	84.9	114.3	115.6	115.4	111.8
Street railways and busses	117.6	118.6	118.9	118.1	167.8	168.9	171.5	158.9
Wholesale trade	96.0	95.0	95.5	94.2	140.4	136.4	136.3	129.5
Retail trade:	99.7	96.6	94.1	100.6	132.0	128.1	126.8	123.6
Food	108.8	106.3	104.6	107.2	141.6	139.2	141.7	131.5
General merchandise ⁴	116.7	109.2	102.4	119.2	147.1	138.9	132.7	138.7
Apparel	113.5	108.2	97.6	114.1	155.0	146.6	133.3	142.0
Furniture and housefurnishings	62.6	62.5	62.8	66.4	88.7	86.9	86.9	86.9
Automotive	66.2	65.7	66.9	63.2	99.1	96.8	98.2	88.0
Lumber and building materials ⁴	90.6	90.0	92.6	92.5	133.1	131.3	133.9	128.1
Hotels (year-round) ³	109.6	109.0	109.4	108.9	161.9	159.0	158.8	147.2
Power laundries	108.0	106.8	109.0	110.2	161.3	159.5	159.8	149.1
Cleaning and dyeing	119.8	118.4	118.4	120.0	188.0	185.5	178.6	173.4
Class I steam railroads ⁵	142.7	144.3	146.7	138.4	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)
Water transportation ⁶	257.2	258.7	255.3	176.7	599.0	602.6	585.2	393.6

¹ Does not include well drilling or rig building.² Data are available upon request from January 1937.³ Data from January 1937 are available upon request. Indexes for July 1944 revised as follows: Employment 123.9, pay roll 170.3.⁴ Revisions have been made as follows in indexes previously published:*Retail trade: General merchandise group*.—July 1944 employment index to 104.8; *Lumber and building materials group*.—July 1944 employment index to 92.4, pay-roll index to 133.0.⁵ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.⁶ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.⁷ Not available.⁸ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to, or owned by, the Army or Navy.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for August, September, and October 1944, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. The average weekly earnings for individual industries are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individ-

ual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*
MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944
All manufacturing.....	\$46.98	\$46.25	\$45.88	45.6	44.9	45.2	103.1	103.1	101.6
Durable goods.....	53.24	52.19	51.84	47.2	46.1	46.6	112.9	113.1	111.2
Nondurable goods.....	37.99	37.67	37.15	43.3	43.0	43.0	87.8	87.6	86.4
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Iron and steel and their products.....	51.44	51.25	50.25	47.2	46.6	46.7	109.1	110.1	107.5
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	55.46	55.43	53.80	47.1	46.3	46.3	117.6	119.8	116.3
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	52.50	52.37	50.64	47.9	47.6	47.3	109.8	110.1	107.1
Malleable-iron castings.....	52.76	52.16	50.62	49.3	48.7	48.4	107.8	107.6	105.2
Steel castings.....	53.09	52.64	52.16	47.4	46.6	46.7	112.1	113.0	111.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	42.56	41.40	40.29	47.9	46.8	46.3	88.9	88.6	87.0
Tin cans and other tinware.....	39.74	40.36	39.54	44.5	45.1	45.0	89.3	89.6	87.9
Wirework.....	50.50	51.10	49.89	47.6	47.8	47.6	106.2	107.0	104.8
Cutlery and edge tools.....	44.52	44.07	43.04	46.3	45.9	46.1	96.1	95.9	94.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	45.39	45.27	45.36	46.6	46.2	47.0	97.6	98.1	96.6
Hardware.....	46.56	45.57	44.85	47.4	46.4	46.8	98.1	98.2	95.7
Plumbers' supplies ²	48.24	47.44	47.61	46.5	45.3	46.2	103.9	104.7	103.0
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	48.39	47.44	45.98	47.1	46.2	46.1	102.8	102.7	99.7
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	49.59	48.38	48.41	48.0	47.0	48.1	103.2	102.8	100.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	48.22	47.50	46.60	46.2	45.2	45.6	104.4	105.0	102.2
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	54.30	54.70	54.83	48.1	48.1	48.8	112.9	113.8	112.3
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	51.58	49.60	49.68	47.5	47.0	47.1	108.9	105.5	105.4
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	49.28	48.46	48.61	47.1	46.0	47.2	104.7	105.4	103.0
Forgings, iron and steel ¹	60.42	59.95	56.93	47.2	46.8	46.4	127.3	127.3	121.9
Screw machine products and wood screws.....	50.66	50.34	50.49	48.4	48.3	48.6	104.6	105.0	103.9
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	43.05	42.12	42.74	44.6	42.8	45.0	96.4	98.4	94.9
Firearms.....	59.00	60.38	59.95	45.4	45.8	46.7	129.8	131.8	128.3
Electrical machinery.....	48.39	48.55	47.76	46.3	46.2	46.3	104.5	105.1	103.2
Electrical equipment.....	50.84	51.27	50.42	46.7	46.6	46.7	109.6	110.1	108.0
Radios and phonographs.....	41.36	41.62	40.68	45.9	45.9	45.5	89.8	90.5	89.4
Communication equipment.....	46.19	45.93	44.97	45.6	44.9	45.5	100.1	101.1	98.4
Machinery, except electrical.....	55.48	54.47	54.15	48.8	47.9	48.3	113.7	113.6	112.1
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	54.37	53.10	52.94	48.7	47.6	48.1	111.6	111.6	110.0
Engines and turbines.....	61.04	58.79	58.96	48.8	47.3	48.0	125.6	124.6	123.1
Tractors.....	54.11	53.46	52.40	47.1	46.8	46.6	114.8	114.3	112.4
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	52.63	55.27	52.68	47.0	47.7	47.1	112.5	115.9	111.9
Machine tools.....	58.95	57.18	57.33	51.2	49.9	50.4	115.0	114.4	113.8
Machine-tool accessories.....	59.79	59.31	58.48	49.3	49.0	49.0	121.6	121.2	119.6
Textile machinery.....	49.25	47.85	47.37	49.4	48.6	48.4	99.7	98.5	97.9
Typewriters.....	49.55	48.09	47.87	49.7	48.7	48.9	99.6	98.7	98.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	59.08	59.23	59.23	48.8	48.9	49.3	122.0	122.0	121.0
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic.....	47.28	47.08	46.45	45.9	45.0	45.3	103.0	104.7	102.4
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	56.53	56.35	55.81	51.1	51.2	50.1	111.6	111.5	112.2
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment ²	52.85	50.47	51.98	47.0	45.4	47.2	112.3	111.2	110.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>									
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	\$62.80	\$60.90	\$60.36	48.3	47.0	47.4	130.0	129.5	127.2
Locomotives	66.52	63.55	65.66	49.4	47.2	49.3	134.7	134.5	133.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	54.77	50.88	51.28	47.0	44.5	45.8	116.4	114.3	112.0
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	55.58	54.37	54.73	47.3	46.3	47.1	117.5	117.6	116.1
Aircraft engines	60.64	60.92	61.51	46.2	45.8	46.8	131.1	133.0	131.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	67.69	65.40	63.96	49.4	47.9	47.8	137.9	136.8	133.9
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	51.30	53.05	50.31	48.6	49.2	47.4	105.5	107.8	106.2
Automobiles	57.90	55.93	56.90	45.6	43.5	45.1	127.0	128.6	126.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	49.75	48.77	48.69	47.2	46.3	46.5	105.5	105.4	104.7
Smelting and refining, primary, of non-ferrous metals	49.94	49.53	48.96	46.7	46.2	46.0	106.8	107.3	106.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of non-ferrous metals except aluminum	54.53	53.35	54.18	48.2	47.4	48.1	113.1	112.5	112.6
Clocks and watches	43.57	43.60	43.63	46.3	46.8	46.7	94.1	93.5	93.5
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	44.09	43.23	40.71	44.7	44.4	43.0	97.2	96.3	93.1
Silverware and plated ware	47.47	47.58	46.98	46.7	46.6	46.7	101.6	102.2	100.8
Lighting equipment	46.79	43.87	46.12	45.1	42.2	45.3	103.7	104.3	101.9
Aluminum manufactures	50.57	49.38	48.54	47.2	46.4	46.0	107.2	106.5	105.6
Lumber and timber basic products	36.21	34.80	35.78	44.8	43.4	44.7	80.7	80.4	80.1
Sawmills and logging camps	35.27	33.85	35.21	44.2	42.6	44.4	79.8	79.4	79.3
Planing and plywood mills	39.05	38.19	37.53	46.9	46.0	45.6	83.7	83.3	82.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	37.41	36.52	36.58	45.0	44.1	44.8	83.1	82.8	81.6
Furniture	37.56	36.68	37.15	44.7	43.7	44.7	84.8	84.7	83.5
Caskets and other morticians' goods	40.58	40.14	40.25	45.4	45.1	45.3	89.7	89.1	89.1
Wood preserving	36.40	34.76	34.62	45.9	43.9	44.9	79.3	79.2	77.1
Stone, clay and glass products	40.79	39.52	39.33	44.7	43.4	44.0	91.3	91.1	89.5
Glass and glassware	41.26	39.64	39.60	43.4	41.3	42.2	95.4	96.1	93.9
Glass products made from purchased glass	35.69	35.48	34.83	44.0	44.1	44.3	80.9	80.3	78.5
Cement	44.72	42.89	42.98	47.5	45.3	46.2	94.2	94.6	93.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	34.97	33.39	33.74	42.9	41.5	42.7	80.5	79.8	78.6
Pottery and related products	37.08	35.80	36.06	42.2	41.2	41.4	88.5	88.2	88.1
Gypsum	46.20	44.11	45.49	49.4	47.6	48.5	93.6	92.6	93.8
Lime	40.65	38.32	38.49	50.7	48.1	49.6	80.2	79.5	77.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	40.42	38.72	40.50	44.4	43.3	45.3	90.6	90.1	89.5
Abrasives	48.96	48.74	46.56	48.0	48.1	47.2	102.5	101.4	98.6
Asbestos products	49.46	48.26	47.05	49.1	48.5	48.2	100.8	99.4	97.6
<i>Nondurable goods</i>									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufacturers	30.53	30.10	29.74	42.2	41.8	41.8	72.4	72.1	71.1
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	27.39	27.26	26.90	42.3	42.2	42.2	64.7	64.6	63.7
Cotton smallwares	34.01	33.16	33.30	43.3	42.5	43.0	78.7	78.2	77.5
Silk and rayon goods	30.21	28.85	28.92	42.7	41.2	41.9	70.6	70.0	68.9
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	35.96	35.51	34.95	42.4	41.8	41.6	84.9	84.9	84.1
Hosiery	29.89	29.26	29.41	38.7	38.3	38.8	77.2	76.6	75.9
Knitted cloth	32.91	33.22	31.87	44.0	44.3	43.2	74.2	74.4	72.9
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.14	30.49	29.91	40.6	39.9	40.1	75.9	75.8	73.9
Knitted underwear	27.28	26.83	26.36	40.7	40.5	40.6	66.7	65.9	64.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	35.16	34.66	34.08	45.2	44.9	44.7	77.8	77.2	76.3
Carpets and rugs, wool	39.93	39.73	39.31	43.6	43.0	43.3	91.9	92.9	91.1
Hats, fur-felt	44.69	43.59	42.84	42.2	41.3	40.7	107.9	106.6	106.0
Jute goods, except felts	34.84	34.70	33.45	45.2	45.0	43.7	77.0	77.1	76.5
Cordage and twine	33.45	33.15	32.65	45.4	45.4	45.1	73.6	73.0	72.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	31.85	31.77	30.44	38.2	38.2	37.7	83.3	83.3	80.7
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	33.73	33.09	31.65	39.1	38.8	38.3	85.7	84.7	82.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	24.76	24.13	23.87	37.3	36.5	36.7	66.3	66.1	65.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	27.02	26.35	25.73	37.1	36.6	36.5	72.7	72.0	70.5
Work shirts	21.50	21.17	20.55	37.4	37.0	36.8	55.5	55.2	54.1
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	39.12	39.82	37.77	36.9	37.2	36.8	102.7	103.5	99.9
Corsets and allied garments	30.92	29.93	29.31	41.0	39.9	40.1	75.3	75.2	73.2
Millinery	38.95	42.01	40.26	33.0	34.6	33.7	97.6	99.1	96.2
Handkerchiefs	24.66	23.45	23.12	38.8	37.4	37.0	63.3	62.8	62.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	26.43	25.83	24.24	37.2	36.4	36.1	69.9	70.4	66.9
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	33.04	32.21	32.01	41.7	41.5	41.4	79.6	77.7	77.4
Textile bags ²	29.70	29.87	28.86	42.0	42.3	41.7	71.0	70.9	69.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>									
Leather and leather products	\$34.04	\$34.06	\$33.16	41.6	41.5	41.2	81.9	82.1	80.6
Leather	43.11	43.55	43.02	45.5	45.7	45.5	94.8	95.2	94.6
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	33.51	34.79	33.40	42.4	43.8	42.9	80.3	80.7	79.0
Boots and shoes	32.26	32.20	31.18	40.8	40.7	40.3	79.0	79.0	77.1
Leather gloves and mittens	30.46	31.35	30.78	38.2	38.2	38.5	80.9	82.7	80.6
Trunks and suitcases	34.19	32.65	32.48	41.1	40.2	40.2	81.8	80.0	79.8
Food	38.39	37.67	37.95	44.8	44.5	45.6	85.7	84.7	84.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	44.61	43.98	44.69	48.1	47.9	48.6	93.0	92.1	92.2
Butter	35.22	34.37	34.13	48.4	47.6	48.1	72.7	72.0	71.0
Condensed and evaporated milk	36.96	37.30	37.28	49.9	50.3	50.6	74.4	74.5	74.0
Ice cream	39.13	39.04	39.42	46.4	45.9	48.1	81.0	81.2	79.4
Flour	42.14	43.68	41.90	49.1	50.5	49.5	85.9	86.6	84.8
Cereal preparations	44.84	44.84	43.58	46.8	47.1	46.0	95.9	95.3	94.7
Baking	38.58	38.93	38.31	45.5	45.9	45.7	84.9	85.0	83.9
Sugar refining, cane ²	39.62	39.08	37.94	46.0	45.3	44.6	86.4	85.9	85.1
Sugar, beet	33.37	33.70	36.06	39.2	34.5	37.5	85.1	97.7	96.2
Confectionery	31.02	31.06	30.49	42.2	42.1	42.2	73.6	73.9	72.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic	34.85	35.35	36.50	43.0	43.7	45.7	81.0	80.9	79.8
Malt liquors	51.50	52.15	53.56	45.7	46.3	47.3	113.2	112.8	113.5
Canning and preserving	31.67	29.98	30.27	40.3	39.4	39.9	79.0	76.4	76.5
Tobacco manufactures	31.53	31.43	30.27	43.3	43.4	42.3	72.8	72.4	71.5
Cigarettes	34.57	34.15	32.79	44.6	44.3	43.1	77.5	77.0	76.0
Cigars	28.89	29.12	28.20	42.2	42.7	41.7	68.7	68.5	67.7
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	29.16	29.08	27.86	42.2	42.3	41.2	69.1	68.7	67.6
Paper and allied products	40.15	39.65	39.10	46.6	46.2	46.2	86.1	85.8	84.7
Paper and pulp	44.23	43.00	42.67	49.0	48.3	48.2	90.0	89.2	88.4
Envelopes	37.09	36.62	36.58	44.7	44.3	44.5	83.0	82.3	81.8
Paper bags	34.74	34.59	33.18	44.8	44.7	43.4	78.1	77.8	76.7
Paper boxes	35.08	35.28	34.71	43.8	43.8	43.9	80.3	80.6	79.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	45.06	45.60	44.43	40.9	41.4	41.1	110.2	110.1	108.0
Newspapers and periodicals	49.21	49.92	48.88	38.4	39.0	38.5	126.2	126.5	125.8
Printing, book and job	43.93	44.26	42.67	42.2	42.6	42.3	103.7	103.0	100.1
Lithographing	45.94	46.98	45.31	43.9	45.1	44.3	104.9	104.7	102.7
Chemicals and allied products	43.93	44.08	43.70	45.8	45.6	45.6	95.9	96.6	96.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors	46.56	46.06	46.25	47.3	47.2	47.8	96.0	97.8	96.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	35.30	35.15	34.52	43.2	42.8	42.5	82.0	82.7	81.7
Soap	48.89	49.26	47.47	48.4	48.8	47.8	101.0	101.0	99.3
Rayon and allied products	39.11	39.22	38.85	43.0	43.0	43.1	90.9	91.2	90.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	51.99	52.22	51.96	46.6	46.7	47.0	111.7	111.9	110.6
Explosives and safety fuses	46.80	47.41	47.25	46.1	46.0	46.5	101.4	103.0	101.7
Ammunition, small-arms	46.05	46.08	45.31	47.1	46.2	46.6	97.7	97.6	97.3
Cottonseed oil	28.79	27.57	25.72	53.3	52.0	48.1	54.0	53.0	53.5
Fertilizers	31.59	32.52	31.65	44.3	45.3	44.8	71.3	71.7	70.6
Products of petroleum and coal	57.02	55.67	55.27	47.9	46.4	46.9	110.0	120.1	117.9
Petroleum refining	60.32	58.24	58.06	48.0	45.9	46.7	125.7	126.8	124.5
Coke and byproducts	48.51	49.29	47.80	47.1	46.5	46.3	102.9	106.1	103.3
Roofing materials	46.85	47.78	46.83	49.1	49.8	49.5	95.4	96.0	94.6
Rubber products	50.96	50.99	50.24	46.0	45.7	45.6	110.8	111.7	110.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes	58.78	59.33	58.62	46.4	46.5	46.4	126.3	127.3	126.4
Rubber boots and shoes	40.93	40.83	39.99	44.6	44.5	43.9	91.7	91.7	91.0
Rubber goods, other	43.43	42.77	42.28	45.8	44.8	45.0	95.0	95.7	94.0
Miscellaneous industries	44.69	44.17	43.10	46.1	45.4	45.1	96.9	97.4	95.7
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	55.44	55.02	53.79	49.1	49.0	48.4	113.1	112.7	111.5
Pianos, organs, and parts	45.60	49.12	46.11	45.5	48.7	46.9	100.5	101.1	98.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Oct. 1944	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	\$51.08	\$47.45	\$48.21	42.6	39.9	40.8	119.7	118.7	117.9
Bituminous	52.33	50.95	52.22	44.1	42.0	44.0	119.1	121.3	119.0
Metal mining	45.81	44.75	44.90	45.1	43.9	44.7	101.3	101.6	100.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	42.47	40.51	41.16	48.9	46.8	47.9	88.0	87.1	86.1
Crude-petroleum production	53.39	55.50	53.24	44.9	45.9	46.1	115.6	117.2	113.0
Public utilities:									
Telephone ²	39.50	39.41	38.33	42.8	43.0	42.6	92.6	92.1	90.2
Telegraph ²	37.08	37.72	37.54	45.8	45.5	46.8	80.9	81.2	80.2
Electric light and power	49.01	49.17	48.66	43.1	43.7	43.9	113.0	112.0	110.2
Street railways and busses	48.14	48.01	48.53	50.3	50.2	51.0	94.1	94.2	93.9
Trade:									
Wholesale	43.57	42.61	42.34	43.2	42.9	43.1	100.8	99.4	98.1
Retail ³ :	26.94	27.09	27.64	41.6	41.8	43.3	71.4	71.2	70.6
Food	31.17	31.36	32.57	40.2	40.5	42.7	72.4	72.0	71.8
General merchandise	22.20	22.39	22.67	36.2	36.9	38.7	60.6	60.2	59.9
Apparel ⁴	28.66	28.24	28.56	38.0	38.1	39.0	82.6	81.8	80.3
Furniture and housefurnishings	38.88	37.93	37.68	44.4	43.6	44.2	87.5	86.9	86.6
Automotive	42.06	41.68	41.36	46.9	46.3	46.8	92.5	92.0	90.9
Lumber and building materials ²	38.25	37.74	37.50	43.6	43.5	43.7	88.9	88.8	87.9
Hotels (year-round) ⁵	23.24	22.89	22.72	43.8	43.9	44.4	52.0	51.6	50.9
Power laundries	27.77	27.72	27.17	43.7	43.9	43.8	64.1	63.7	62.8
Cleaning and dyeing	31.77	31.70	30.62	43.8	44.3	43.9	74.1	73.6	71.6
Brokerage	54.57	54.25	55.30	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Insurance	44.87	44.24	44.73	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Private building construction	54.66	53.71	52.90	40.7	40.1	40.0	134.3	133.9	132.3

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnished man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² Revisions have been made as follows in data published for earlier months:

Plumbers' supplies.—June and July 1944 average hourly earnings to 104.6 and 102.7 cents.

Forgings, iron and steel.—December 1943 through February 1944 average weekly earnings to \$59.20, \$59.80, and \$60.55.

Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.—June and July 1944 average weekly hours to 46.7 and 43.9; average hourly earnings to 108.2 and 108.2 cents.

Textile bags.—July 1944 average weekly earnings to \$28.62; average hourly earnings to 68.4 cents.

Sugar refining, cane.—July 1944 average weekly earnings to \$38.80; average weekly hours to 45.3.

Retail trade, total.—June 1944 average weekly hours to 40.8; average hourly earnings to 72.7 cents.

Apparel group.—June and July 1944 average weekly hours to 37.3 and 37.6; average hourly earnings to 75.5 cents and 76.3 cents.

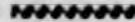
Lumber and building materials group.—June and July 1944 average hourly earnings to 85.7 cents and 86.4 cents.

³ Data from January 1937 are available upon request.

⁴ Data from June 1943 are available upon request. Excludes messengers and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters and of cable companies.

⁵ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.

⁶ Not available.



Civilian Labor Force, November 1944

THE civilian labor force declined seasonally by about 660,000 persons between October and November 1944, according to the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force. The volume of employment decreased by approximately the same amount, while unemployment showed no significant change, continuing below the 700,000 mark.

The drop in employment between October and November was attributable mainly to a decrease of 610,000 in agriculture as the fall harvest was completed in many areas. The decline in agricultural

employment was about in line with that shown between the same months in 1943.

Nonagricultural employment showed a slight decrease during the month interval, in contrast to increases recorded at this time in previous years. The level of nonagricultural employment (43,390,000) in November 1944 was 590,000 below the November 1943 total. Employment of women in nonagricultural industries was 280,000 above the November 1943 level, while employment of men was 870,000 below that level. It should be remembered, however, that the number of men in the armed forces showed a net increase of about 1,700,000 during the year.

The fact that more than half of the persons seeking work have been doing so for less than 1 month and that more than three out of four have been out of work less than 2 months illustrates the temporary nature of unemployment today. The unemployed group, for the most part, is composed of persons in the process of changing jobs.

Civilian Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status and by Sex, October and November 1940-44¹

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over ²								
	1944		1943		1942		1941		1940
	No-vember	Octo-ber	No-vember	Octo-ber	No-vember	Octo-ber	No-vember	Octo-ber	No-vember
Total civilian labor force	52,210	52,870	52,550	53,080	54,080	54,630	53,820	54,070	53,090
Unemployment ³	680	650	870	910	1,480	1,460	3,450	3,460	6,570
Employment	51,530	52,220	51,680	52,170	52,600	53,170	50,370	50,610	46,520
Nonagricultural	43,390	43,470	43,980	43,770	44,410	43,790	42,020	41,730	38,240
Agricultural	8,140	8,750	7,700	8,400	8,190	9,380	8,350	8,880	8,280
<i>Males</i>									
Civilian labor force	34,060	34,400	35,080	35,310	38,270	38,820	39,860	39,940	40,460
Unemployment ³	350	320	440	490	900	890	2,390	2,320	4,910
Employment	33,710	34,080	34,640	34,820	37,370	37,930	37,470	37,620	35,550
Nonagricultural	27,260	27,300	28,130	28,070	30,340	30,370	30,110	30,110	27,620
Agricultural	6,450	6,780	6,510	6,750	7,030	7,560	7,360	7,510	7,930
<i>Females</i>									
Civilian labor force	18,150	18,470	17,470	17,770	15,810	15,810	13,960	14,130	12,630
Unemployment ³	330	330	430	420	580	570	1,060	1,140	1,660
Employment	17,820	18,140	17,040	17,350	15,230	15,240	12,900	12,990	10,970
Nonagricultural	16,130	16,170	15,850	15,700	14,070	13,420	11,910	11,620	10,620
Agricultural	1,690	1,970	1,190	1,650	1,160	1,820	900	1,370	350

¹ Estimates for period prior to November 1943 revised April 24, 1944.

² All data exclude persons in institutions.

³ Includes persons on public emergency projects prior to July 1943.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

January 1945

Child Labor and Child Welfare

The long road: Fortieth anniversary report of the National Child Labor Committee. New York 16 (419 Fourth Avenue), National Child Labor Committee, 1944. 56 pp., charts, illus. (Publication No. 390.)

Divides the history of the campaign against child labor into the following four periods: 1904-14, A decade of fights, defeats, and a few gains; 1914-24, Fighting on two fronts—State and Federal; 1924-34, Leave it to the States; 1934-44, Child labor in a decade of upheavals.

State child labor and compulsory education legislation, 1944. New York 16 (419 Fourth Avenue), National Child Labor Committee, September 1944. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

Includes provisions of both enacted and defeated bills.

Wisconsin child labor statistics, 1943. Madison, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, 1944. 20 pp.; mimeographed.

Education and Training

An educational guide in air transportation. By Ralph E. Hinkel and Leo Baron. Kansas City, Mo., Transcontinental & Western Air, Inc., 1944. 140 pp., bibliography, illus. 75 cents.

Lists the functions of and the necessary qualifications and desirable training for various positions in the air-transportation field.

Foreman training in the anthracite industry. New York 17, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1944. 24 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 66.)

Training and reference manual for job analysis. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Manpower Utilization, Division of Occupational Analysis and Manning Tables, 1944. 104 pp.

Dominion-provincial youth training program, Dominion-provincial war emergency training program (Canadian vocational training): Report of the Dominion Director of Training for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1944. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1944. 30 pp.

Employment and Unemployment

Employment and pay rolls in Washington State, 1938-42. Olympia, Wash., Office of Unemployment Compensation and Placement, Research and Statistics Section, 1944. 101 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Needed: 20,000,000 post-war jobs. A radio discussion by Robert Nathan, Neil Jacoby, and William Spencer. Chicago, 1944. 25 pp. (University of Chicago round table, No. 334.)

Practical guide to rehiring of veterans. New York 19 (1776 Broadway), Labor Relations Institute, 1944. 27 pp.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

Employment policy. By Peter Thorneycroft and Hugh Molson. London, Tory Reform Committee, 1944. 7 pp. (Bull. No. 2.)

Commends the British Government's White Paper on employment policy and discusses its significance.

Full employment in a free society. By William H. Beveridge. London, George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1944. 429 pp. 12s. 6d., net.

This study is a sequel to the author's report on "Social insurance and allied services." It includes information on unemployment in Great Britain before and after the first World War; discusses the internal and international implications of full employment; and presents a full-employment program for peace, based on (1) adequate and properly-balanced outlay for privately produced goods and services in the fields of consumption and capital investment and for public works and services, (2) controlled location of industry, and (3) organized mobilization of labor. One of the appendixes deals with the international trade cycle and other fluctuations.

Handicapped Workers

Impaired workers in industry. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 7 pp. (Serial No. 1701; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1944.) Free.

Normal lives for the disabled. By Edna Yost in collaboration with Lillian M. Gilbreth. New York, Macmillan Co., 1944. 298 pp. \$2.50.

A morale-building volume addressed directly to the newly disabled individual, with sections on "Making up your mind to work," "Getting ready for work," and "On the job." The authors emphasize the need for retraining and intelligent placement, indicate sources of contact, and give practical suggestions throughout.

"Rehabilitation": A plan to help you employ disabled veterans and other handicapped persons productively and safely. Chicago 11 (919 North Michigan Avenue), Ill., American Mutual Alliance, 1944. 22 pp., bibliography.

Rehabilitation of the disabled serviceman: A selected bibliography, revised and enlarged. Compiled by Felicia Fuss. New York 10, Russell Sage Foundation Library, November 1944. 14 pp. (Bull. No. 162.) 20 cents.

Selective placement of the handicapped—joint task of government and industry. (In Manpower Review, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Washington 25, November 1944, pp. 3-17.)

Ten articles covering the various phases, programs, and techniques now being used in the rehabilitation, retraining, and reemployment of handicapped veterans.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Healthy industry. London, Automatic Telephone and Electric Co., Ltd., 1944. 52 pp., charts. 2s.

The company which issued this pamphlet regards an adequately equipped and staffed industrial health service as an integral part of good management of any modern factory. Operations of its own health service are described and evaluated. Methods used in keeping absentee records are shown in detail.

Physical examinations in industry. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Industrial Health Section, 1944. 44 pp., bibliography, diagrams. (Industrial health series No. 2.)

Popular presentation, including sections dealing with the physically handicapped and workers exposed to occupational hazards.

A provisional classification of diseases and injuries for use in compiling morbidity statistics. By Committee on Hospital Morbidity Statistics, Medical Research Council, Great Britain. London, Medical Research Council, 1944. 168 pp. (Special report series No. 248.) 3s. net.

Occupational hazards in fabrication of magnesium and its alloys. By C. B. Ford and A. C. Stern. (In Industrial Bulletin, New York State Department of Labor, Albany, July 1944, pp. 253-256. Also reprinted.)

We're learning more about dermatitis. By Winston U. Rutledge, M.D. (In National Safety News, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Ill., November 1944, pp. 23, 86, et seq. 40 cents.)

A dermatologist outlines measures for the prevention of industrial skin disorders, and discusses some of the causative agents and their effects.

Housing

The construction industry in the United States. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 149 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 786.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Disposition of artillery plants, World War I, 1918–30. By Dorothy B. Howard. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 52 pp.; mimeographed. (Historical study No. 74.) Free.

Includes information on housing facilities provided by the Government for workers in plants engaged on Government contracts in Erie, Pa., and the disposition of these facilities when no longer needed.

Plans prepared for disposal of federally aided housing. (In Engineering News-Record, News Issue, New York, November 9, 1944, pp. 1, 7.)

Describes the machinery being established by the U. S. National Housing Agency to dispose of publicly financed dwelling units built under its direction.

Neighborhood design and control: An analysis of the problems of planned subdivisions. By Henry S. Churchill and Rowlyn Ittleson. New York 18 (512 Fifth Avenue), National Committee on Housing, Inc., 1944. 39 pp. \$1.

The Niagara frontier plans for peace. New York 18 (512 Fifth Avenue), National Committee on Housing, Inc., 1944. 26 pp., map, charts. 25 cents.

Account of the planning work being carried on in the Niagara frontier of New York State preparatory to post-war resumption of construction, and to stimulate high industrial productivity, full employment, and general economic and social progress.

Housing problems in Great Britain. By Marian Bowley. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, November 1944, pp. 603–625. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

Planning our new homes: Report by the Scottish Housing Advisory Committee on the design, planning, and furnishing of new houses. Edinburgh, 1944. 96, xliv pp., charts, plans, illus. 3s. net.

Income

Post-war national income, its probable magnitude. By Joseph Mayer. Washington 6, Brookings Institution, 1944. 34 pp. (Pamphlet No. 55.) 50 cents.

The author assumes conditions in 1947 resembling those of 1943 as to wage rates, prices, and certain other factors, the main assumed difference being a reduction of the number of persons at work or in the armed forces from about 62 million to about 56 million and a reduction of the workweek to 40 hours. On the basis of his various assumptions, he estimates that national income in 1947 will be around \$123,100,000,000, or about 17 percent less than in 1943. No explicit assumptions are made regarding possible changes in efficiency and labor productivity.

The incomes of physicians—a comparison of published studies. (In Medical Care, New York, August 1944, pp. 221–227. \$1.)

Studies which have attempted to arrive at a national average of physicians' incomes are examined in this article with a view to ascertaining the reliability of the findings of these studies as indicated by the relative consistency of two or more which gave estimates of income for the same year.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Annual summary of injuries in the petroleum industry for 1943. New York 20 (50 West 50th Street), American Petroleum Institute, 1944. 19 pp., chart.

Disabling injuries in 202 companies, employing 335,570 persons, are analyzed in this report. Against an 8 percent increase in the number of man-hours worked in 1943, the severity rate was lower than for 1942; the frequency rate, however, showed a 10-percent increase.

Failure of supervision as related to the causes of accidents. Washington 25, U. S. Army Service Forces, Office of the Chief of Engineers, Safety and Accident Prevention Branch, 1944. 8 pp.

Supervision failure was indicated in 73 percent of the 17,869 lost-time accidents analyzed.

New developments in workmen's compensation. By Verne A. Zimmer. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington 25, October 1944, pp. 8-10. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.)

Appraisal of the present protective status of workmen's compensation laws in the United States, with a discussion of major shortcomings.

Industrial Relations

The closed shop: A study of the methods used by unions to attain security. Kingston, Ontario, Queen's University, Department of Industrial Relations, 1944. 85 pp., bibliography. (Bull. No. 9.) \$1.50.

Analyzes status of closed shop in Canada and the United States and discusses arguments for and against it.

The collective bargaining agreement in action. New York 18, American Management Association, 1944. 40 pp. (Personnel series No. 82.)

Union agreements in the canned fruit and vegetable industry. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 24 pp. (Bull. No. 794.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The management almanac, 1944: A reference book of facts for the personnel and labor relations executive. New York 17, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1944. 227 pp., bibliography.

The first part of the volume gives a chronology of events affecting labor relations from January 1943 to February 1944, inclusive. Succeeding sections deal with various phases of industrial relations and personnel management.

Management and the foreman: Foremen's unionization; Foremen's attitudes; Incentives for foremen; The foreman's status in management. New York 18, American Management Association, 1944. 20 pp. (Production series No. 154.)

No-strike pledge. By Frank P. Huddle. Washington 5 (1013 13th Street NW.) Editorial Research Reports, 1944. 16 pp. (Vol. II, 1944, No. 13.) \$1.

Deals with the waning force of labor's no-strike pledge and its operation in the United States, strike controls in World War I, and strike controls introduced in Great Britain and the Dominions in the present war.

Seniority and reemployment of war veterans. New York 17, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1944. 12 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 65.)

What the factory worker really thinks about his company and his foreman. (In Factory Management and Maintenance, 330 West 42d Street, New York 18, November 1944, pp. 81-88; charts.)

Second of two articles based on a Nation-wide survey of the attitudes of wage earners in manufacturing industries in the United States, conducted for Factory Management and Maintenance by the Opinion Research Corporation of Princeton, N. J.

Labor Departments

Report of the New York State Economy Commission to the Governor and to the Legislature, February 28, 1944: Interim report on the Department of Labor. Albany, 1944. 191 pp. (Legislative document, 1944, No. 34.)

This interim report deals with the following sections of the New York Department of Labor: Division of bedding, division of self insurance, bureau of accounts, finance bureau, field service, and division of women in industry and minimum wage, the latter taking up nearly half the report. Various recommendations are made concerning these agencies.

Ministry of Labor and National Service [Great Britain]—a functional survey for the guidance of managements. (In Production and Engineering Bulletin, Ministry of Labor and National Service and Ministry of Production, London, September 1944, pp. 398-408.)

Labor Legislation

Annual digest of State and Federal labor legislation, enacted August 1, 1943, to August 1, 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 20 pp. (Bull. No. 71.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

State minimum-wage legislation—a post-war necessity. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, October 1944. 25 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

The need for minimum-wage legislation to protect the earnings of both men and women is emphasized in this report by the presentation of data, collected by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, on average hourly earnings of workers in hotels, laundries, restaurants, and limited-price variety stores in States having no minimum-wage laws in operation.

Escala móvil de los salarios. By Manuel Pinto. (In *Derecho del Trabajo*, Buenos Aires, Argentina, March 1944, pp. 97-114.)

A general theoretical and historical discussion of wage fixing in various countries is followed by a list of Argentine national and provincial minimum-wage laws, and a discussion of the Argentine legislation of March and September 1943 tying wages to the cost of living and establishing a new scheme of fixing minimum wages.

Provincial [Canadian] labor standards concerning child labor, hours of work, minimum wages, and workmen's compensation. Ottawa, Department of Labor of Canada, Legislation Branch, June 1944. 10 pp.; mimeographed.

Tabular statement, by Province.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

American Federation of Labor post-war forum, Hotel Commodore, New York City, April 12 and 13, 1944—complete record of proceedings. Washington, American Federation of Labor, 1944. 73 pp.

Political action by organized labor. By Frank P. Huddle. Washington 5 (1013 13th Street NW.), Editorial Research Reports, 1944. 13 pp. (Vol. II, 1944, No. 10.) \$1.

Working with organized labor: A study of Y. M. C. A. practice and policy. Edited by E. C. Worman. New York, Association Press, 1944. 98 pp. \$1.25.

Manual of information about the labor movement, prepared for Y. M. C. A. leaders, with suggested projects and methods for developing mutual understanding through cooperative activities with labor organizations.

Trade union publications: The official journals, convention proceedings, and constitutions of international unions and federations, 1850-1941—Volume I, Description and bibliography. By Lloyd G. Reynolds and Charles C. Killingsworth. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1944. 416 pp. 3 vols., \$25.

Unions in Britain. By A. Wyn Williams. (In *Mill and Factory*, 205 East 42d Street, New York 17, September 1944, pp. 120, 121, et seq.)

Discusses the organization and practices of trade-unions in Great Britain and contrasts them with those of unions in the United States.

Manpower

Sources of wartime labor supply in the United States. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 15 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1681; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1944.) Free.

Wartime changes in Spokane's labor force. By John A. Guthrie. Pullman, Wash., State College of Washington, Bureau of Economic and Business Research, 1944. 32 pp. (Bull. No. 1.)

Manpower: The story of Britain's mobilization for war. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1944. 60 pp., illus. 9d. net.

Popularly written account of methods used to bring the greatest possible proportion of the people of working age into Britain's war effort, discussing employment and living conditions and the results of the mobilization measures taken.

Medical Care

Bibliography on public medical service. Chicago 37 (1313 East 60th Street), Ill., American Public Welfare Association, Committee on Medical Care, September 1944. 16 pp.; mimeographed. 15 cents.

Prepayment medical care organizations. By Margaret C. Klem. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1944. 130 pp. (Bureau memorandum No. 55.) 2d ed. 30 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Data from this report are given on page 57 of this issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

Personnel Management

Industrial management. By Asa S. Knowles and Robert D. Thomson. New York, Macmillan Co., 1944. 791 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. \$4.50. A textbook, with 8 of the 35 chapters devoted to the management of manpower.

The growth of personnel management in Great Britain during the war. By G. R. Moxon. (In *International Labor Review*, Montreal, December 1944, pp. 709-735. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

Suggestion systems—a selected list of references. Washington 25, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Library, 1944. 24 pp.; processed.

Post-War Reconstruction

The common interest in international economic organization. By J. B. Condliffe and A. Stevenson. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1944. 135 pp. (Studies and reports, series B, No. 39.) \$1. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Among the objectives of post-war planning described by the authors are full employment and social security. It is stated that achievement of these aims is dependent upon economic development in the various countries and the assurance of peace, and that these in turn require the development and utilization of such agencies as the International Labor Organization for cooperative and co-ordinated action by governments.

Disposal of surplus war materials: Policies and procedures, 1918-26. Report of the War Contracts Subcommittee to the Committee on Military Affairs, pursuant to S. Res. 198, a resolution to investigate war contracts, the termination of war contracts, and related problems. Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 118 pp. (Senate subcommittee print No. 7, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Study made by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the War Contracts Subcommittee.

Impact of the war on the San Diego area: Working notebook for use by local groups studying recent economic developments and formulating plans for the post-war period. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 52 pp.; mimeographed. (Industrial area study No. 20.)

Post-war planning in the United States—an organization directory. New York 18 (330 West 42d Street), Twentieth Century Fund, 1944. 134 pp. \$1.

Reconstruction administration: Report of the A. F. of L. Committee on Post-War Planning. Washington, American Federation of Labor, [1944?]. 15 pp.

Report of proposed post-war public works: Volume and status of the plan preparation of post-war public works proposed by State and local governments. Prepared at the request of the Special Committee on Post-War Economic Policy and Planning, House of Representatives, by the Federal Works Agency, in collaboration with the Bureau of the Census. Washington, September 1944. 121 pp.; processed.

When Johnny comes marching home. By Dixon Weeter. Boston, Mass., Houghton Mifflin Co., 1944. 588 pp. \$3.

Account of the American soldier's return to civilian life after each war in which the United States has been engaged, and of the factors and influences that hin-

dered or aided that transition. Special emphasis is placed upon the era following World War I, and upon the problems of personal readjustment that will arise for the ex-serviceman after World War II.

The special problems of planning. By H. C. Coombs. Melbourne, Australia, Melbourne University Press, in association with Oxford University Press, 1944. 19 pp. (Realities of reconstruction, No. 2.) 6d.

Discusses the problems of demobilization of service men and women and war workers in Australia, their reemployment and readjustment to a peacetime environment, and betterment of the physical environment of all the people.

Post-war planning in Britain: Unofficial post-war planning, 1939–44. New York 20, British Information Services, 1944. 88 pp.

Collection of statements showing the post-war aims of private bodies, such as churches, political parties, and employer and labor organizations.

Social Security

The Wagner-Murray-Dingell bill for the improvement and extension of social security in America—big and little issues in it. By Harvey Lebrun. New York 3, American Association for Social Security, Inc., 1944. 15 pp. 25 cents.

Simple presentation of the main provisions of the bill to amend and extend the present Federal Social Security Act, and of the major issues involved.

Rhode Island breaks new ground in social insurance. By Katherine G. Clark. (In Medical Care, Baltimore 2, Md., May 1944, pp. 123–141. \$1.)

Reviews the first year's operation of Rhode Island's Cash Sickness Compensation Act, which provides cash benefits for wage earners when they are ill. The fund is financed by employee contributions and administered by the Unemployment Compensation Board.

Pension plans, good, bad, and legal. (In Modern Industry, 347 Madison Avenue, New York 17, June 15, 1944, pp. 48–50 et seq.; illus.)

Discusses principal features of the large number of pension plans being instituted since the passage of the new Internal Revenue Act.

Retirement system of the Federal Reserve Banks—tenth annual report for the fiscal year ended February 29, 1944. New York 7 (33 Liberty Street), [Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System], 1944. 38 pp.

Annual report of the Comptroller of the City of New York, for the fiscal year 1943–44. New York, 1944. 451 pp.

An appendix to the report gives financial information for the various retirement systems for which the Comptroller is custodian—city employees', teachers', and Board of Education, and the pension funds of the police and fire departments.

Statutory analysis of retirement provisions for teachers and other school employees. Washington 6, National Education Association of the United States, Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement, January 1944. 63 pp. 25 cents.

Includes a chapter on military leave during World War II.

Royal warrant concerning pensions and other grants for members of the Home Guard disabled, and for the widows, children, parents, and other dependents of such members deceased, in consequence of service during the present war. London, Ministry of Pensions, 1944. 4 pp. (Cmd. 6516.) 1d. net.

Health benefits under Part III of the [New Zealand] Social Security Act, 1938. Wellington, Department of Health, 1943. 20 pp.

Social security monetary benefits and war pensions in New Zealand. Wellington, Social Security Department, [1943]. 53 pp.

Deals with the administration of the social-security system and the benefits provided.

Unemployment Insurance

Estimates of railroad unemployment insurance payments and costs during the period of adjustment to peace. By Daniel Carson. Chicago (844 Rush Street), U. S. Railroad Retirement Board, Office of Director of Research, 1944. 50 pp., charts; mimeographed.

In anticipation of an increase in the volume of unemployment among railroad workers in the United States after the war, the Railroad Retirement Board has

prepared estimates of the unemployment-insurance load that could be expected under three alternative assumptions as to economic conditions—prosperity, moderate depression, and deep and protracted depression. Under the latter, it is calculated that in five years beneficiaries might reach a total of 1,930,000 and benefit payments a total of \$314,000,000.

Limited availability for shift employment: A criterion of eligibility for unemployment compensation. By Ralph Altman and Virginia Lewis. (In North Carolina Law Review, Chapel Hill, April 1944, pp. 189-211. Also reprinted.)

Unemployment compensation in the reconversion period: Recommendations by the Social Security Board. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington 25, October 1944, pp. 3-8. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.)

Recommendations for improvement of State unemployment-compensation legislation in the 1945 State legislative sessions, sent by the U. S. Social Security Board to State unemployment-compensation agencies. These fall under the heads of coverage, amount and duration of benefits, disqualifications, payment of benefits to young people while undertaking training, and administrative simplifications.

Wartime impact of unemployment benefit decisions. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, 1944. 13 pp. (Preprinted from Social Security Yearbook, 1943.)

Wages

Railway wage rates, employment, and pay. By John L. McDougall. Toronto, Longmans Green & Co., 1944. 34 pp., charts.

Deals with the long-run relationships between wage rates per hour and the volume of employment, of total wages, and of average yearly earnings, in Canada and the United States. The pamphlet is a summary of a larger study not yet published.

First annual report of the Catering Wages Commission, Great Britain, 1943-44. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1944. 15 pp. 3d. net.

Describes the catering industry, employer and employee organizations, and plans for raising standards under the provisions of the Catering Wages Act of 1943.

Report of the Witwatersrand Mine Natives' Wages Commission on the remuneration and conditions of employment of natives on Witwatersrand gold mines, and regulation and conditions of employment of natives at Transvaal undertakings of Victoria Falls and Transvaal Power Company, Limited, 1943. Pretoria, Union of South Africa, 1944. 62 pp. 6s.

White-Collar Workers

Professional chemical workers in war and peace: An analysis of the economic status of the members of the American Chemical Society, 1941 to 1943. By Andrew Fraser, Jr. [Washington, American Chemical Society?], 1944. 42 pp., charts. (Reprinted from Chemical and Engineering News, Vol. 22, Nos. 10, 13, 16, 19.)

Wartime health and education: Fixed incomes in the war economy. Hearings before a subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate, 78th Congress, second session, on S. Res. 74 . . . , Part 3, Washington, D. C., January and February 1944. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. xii, 494 pp., charts.

Testimony and exhibits on the economic situation of various classes of white-collar workers, and recommendations of the committee. The recommendations were reproduced in the Monthly Labor Review for July 1944 (p. 84).

Women in Industry

Careers for women in banking and finance. By Dorcas Campbell. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1944. 260 pp., bibliography, illus. \$2.75.

Problems and potentialities of women in banking are discussed by the author from various angles. She points out that banks in the United States are employing women in increasing numbers.

Instructions governing employment of women for railroad service on the Pennsylvania Railroad. [Philadelphia, Pa., Pennsylvania Railroad Co., 1944?] 25 pp.

Practical hints to employers of women with special reference to transportation. Washington 25, U. S. Office of Defense Transportation, Division of Transport Personnel, 1944. 17 pp.; mimeographed.

The effects of general mobilization on the employment of women in Germany. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, September 1944, pp. 335-351. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

This article supplements previous articles on German policy regarding women's work, published in the International Labor Review for December 1941 and March 1942. It notes the changes that have taken place recently and summarizes a number of special measures which have been adopted in connection with the general mobilization of manpower ordered early in 1943.

The lesser half. By Vera Douie. London, Women's Publicity Planning Association, [1943?]. 100 pp. 1s. 6d. net.

Survey of British wartime laws, regulations, and practices, which embody discrimination against women.

General Reports

A selected bibliography on employment service and related subjects. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Placement, 1944. 39 pp.; processed. Revised edition.

Annual report of the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Territory of Hawaii, July 1, 1943, to June 30, 1944. Honolulu, 1944. 46 pp., charts.

Brazil on the march—a study in international cooperation: Reflections on the report of the American Technical Mission to Brazil. By Morris L. Cooke. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1944. 303 pp., map, illus. \$3.

Topics of labor interest discussed include Brazilian constitutional provisions regarding labor, principal labor legislation, social insurance, health and welfare activities, workers' organizations, vocational training, and various industrial processes.

Annual report of the Commissioner of Labor, Fiji. Suva, 1944. 4 pp. (Legislative Council paper No. 10, F. 36/70.)

Contains information on general labor conditions, labor disputes, wages, and related matters.

Regulation of wages and other problems of industrial labor in India. Banaili reader-ship lectures, 1939-40, by D. R. Gadgil. Poona 4, Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, 1943. 93 pp. (Publication No. 9.) 10s.

War and Indian economic policy. By D. R. Gadgil and N. V. Sovani. Poona, Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, 1943. 132 pp. (Publication No. 10.) 10s.

Currency, prices, and financial and economic policy are treated.

Annual report of the Labor Department of Tanganyika Territory, 1943. Dar Es Salaam, 1944. 25 pp. 1s.

Discusses general labor conditions and includes labor statistics.

Aspects of public service organization and employment, [Union of South Africa]. Pretoria, Social and Economic Planning Council, 1944. 8 pp. (Report No. 3.) 1s.

Describes the functions and staffing of the public services and gives data on employment conditions, including weekly wages, of unskilled state employees.